The Nation.

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The Week.

Two or three weeks ago a number of bankers in this city were invited separately to the office of one of them, and asked the question how much money they could withdraw from their ordinary business and invest in Government bonds for the purpose of avoiding a suspension of specie payments. Each one was told that it was a matter of life and death, and that, unless the requisite amount was made up, they and their customers and the Government would all go to financial smash together. They all knew this before they went to the rendezvous. Accordingly each one of them made a statement of the amount he could take and pay for. Soon afterwards the understanding was reduced to writing and signed, but it was not an agreement in law because the terms of the subscription were not settled, and because the other party, the Government of the United States, had not assented to it. It was binding in honor only, and would remain so as long as the necessity which gave birth to it continued. If the necessity should cease for any reason, the members would be released. If, for example, the gold reserve of the Treasury should increase as it did a few years ago without bond-selling, or if other persons, either foreign or domestic subscribers, should come forward and take the loan, the members of the syndicate would be released.

By reason of the preponderance of blatherskites in the newspaper press and in Congress, the public were induced to believe that those bankers, instead of being hauled up to this agreement, and forced to sign it by necessity, were eager to get the bonds. The transition from this view to that of highway robbery was easy and natural. By copious blackguardism the public, or the unthinking portion of it, were led to consider these men in the light of public enemies, simply and solely because they were willing to lend the Government the money to tide it over a crisis. And now we are told from day to day that the syndicate is dissolved, or is about to dissolve, in obedience to public disapprobation of its cormorant propensity to grab all the Government bonds in sight and to prevent the poor man from getting any, whereas in truth there is nothing to dissolve. The only thing that ever existed was the willingness to subscribe. That exists still. It exists not by virtue of a signed paper, but by virtue of the needs of the Government.

The lightning transformation of the "popular loan" from a miserable failure on Thursday into an enormous success on Monday is one of the most remarkable events in financial, and eke in journalistic, history. The intention was, of course, to have the bonds taken up by the plain people, in denominations of $50, so that banks, plutocrats, corporations, syndicates, and especially foreigners, should get none of the enormous profits. For some days the subscriptions dragged, and it began to look as if Wall Street had us again. But the strong and patriotic appeals to the plain people at last told, and they began to bring out their hard-won savings. First a life-insurance company emptied its stocking and offered to put its little accumulations, laid up against a rainy day, into bonds to the amount of $10,000,000. Two other small investors in the same business heard of the $50 bonds in reach of the poorest, and fished out of their old clothes and worn pocket-books enough to take (only "estimated," however) $15,000,000. Banks, suddenly transmuted from cormorants and sharks into "the people," offered to take $15,000,000 more. Even German bankers, by the most sudden sea change on record, figure in the patriotic list of toiling and thrifty Americans, putting their little all at the disposal of the Government, to the amount of $40,000,000. Borne away by the infectious enthusiasm and love of country, plain people like Mr. Russell Sage have now come forward to make this issue of bonds to the simple, honest Poor Richards of the land a great success, and to complete the confusion of all syndicates and blood-suckers. The boasted thrift of the French peasantry is nothing to this. What French peasant ever ripped open his mattress and brought out $3,000,000, as did our Jacques Bonhomme, Mr. Sage?

The Republican scheme for raising more revenue by increasing tariff rates, and thus diminishing imports and the duties collected thereon at present, hangs fire. Speaker Reed carried the bill through the House with ease, and Senator Quay concluded that it would be "good politics" for the Republicans in the upper branch to concur. A resolution declaring that the finance committee should report the bill to the Senate as it passed the House was readily accepted by the Republican caucus on Wednesday week, and the managers began congratulating themselves on having solved a difficult problem so quickly. But it soon appeared that the decision of the question rested with a man who no longer accepts the decrees of Republican caucuses as binding. Senator Jones of Nevada holds the balance of power in the committee, and Senator Jones is nowadays a Populist, who thinks that raw sugar should share in the increase of 15 per cent. provided in other schedules. The Republican Senators generally are said to believe that Mr. Jones will finally relent and act with them. This is by no means impossible, but it is safe to predict that the Nevada Senator will insist that the relenting shall not all be on one side. If the silver men must yield something to the high-tariff men, they will demand something in return.

It is good news that many of the Republican Senators from the silver States are resolved to make a straight-out fight for free coinage. Mr. Teller of Colorado told the caucus last week that he proposed to assist in placing a free-coinage amendment on the pending tariff bill, and on every future tariff bill, until such a measure should become a law. He declared that it was his intention to endeavor to have such an amendment placed on a tariff bill in the next Congress if the Republicans should control both branches of Congress and the executive. If the other Republican silver Senators sustain Mr. Teller in this position now and during the next six months, the Republican national convention will hardly be able to "dodge" the issue. It is on every account earnestly to be desired that the party shall make up its mind "where it is at," and take a firm stand on the silver question. If the sound-money men are inclined to be disingenuous, the soft-money men will render a public service by pushing the fight until they force a decision.

The apparently official announcement that the English Government will publish, even in advance of the meeting of Parliament, all the documents in their possession bearing on the Venezuelan dispute, removes the last doubt that the outcome of the whole affair will be peaceful. Those of our dogs of war who are not already muzzled can work off their superfluous valor by taunting Salisbury with "backing down," and thus prepare themselves for the question, which they will soon be indignantly asking, "What has become of the crazy fools who were talking about the possibility of a war with England?" What the English case will prove to be, no man knows in advance except Lodge, and he, of course, knows that it will be worthless. He astutely pointed out long ago that the President's message had carelessly left a possibility of peace in the admission that Great Britain and Venezuela might compose their differences amicably, without our interference; and now he and the Senate committee on foreign affairs are trying to turn out a form of the Monroe Doctrine which will insure to us and our posterity the blessings of countless wars. They admit, however, that they are sorely handicapped by the President's blun-

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der in not making war inevitable while he was about it. This, with Salisbury's craven offer of all the documents in the case, makes the outlook for senatorial warriors most discouraging. The wonder with many minds will be why it never occurred to Mr. Olney to ask for the evidence which the English are now going to submit without being asked. He might have had it at any time for the asking. He might himself have appointed an investigating committee, paid them out of the secret fund at his disposal, and avoided all the fanfaronade and claptrap. Why did he not? The only rational answer is that his letter, the message, and the pretence of war were for politics only.

The Venezuela dispute did not reach an acute stage until the beginning of July, 1895. It was on the 20th of that month that Mr. Olney wrote his despatch to Lord Salisbury asserting the sovereignty of the United States over the whole of this continent, and so forth. It is a curious fact that the grant to the Manoa Company, which had been declared void in 1886, was renewed on the 17th of June, 1895, just thirty-two days before Mr. Olney's despatch was written. The latest prospectus of the company records this fact. The eastern boundary of the grant of land is described as a line running from a point where the Imataca Mountain range touches the limit of British Guiana, and "from this limit and along it, toward the north, to the shore of the Atlantic Ocean." This limit being the very point in dispute between Great Britain and Venezuela, the tracing of it was undertaken by the Manoa Company itself, with the result of carrying its operations a long distance beyond the boundary claimed by Great Britain. In fact, the present Venezuelan Commission is expected to determine, so far as we are concerned, the very question which the Manoa Company determined for itself in 1885 by occupying the disputed territory. The correspondence between our Government and that of Venezuela shows that the latter pressed us very strenuously about that time (1885) to induce Great Britain to consent to arbitration of the boundary dispute, but only in case the United States should be the arbitrator. No other kind of arbitration was ever proposed by her. Mr. Bayard was then Secretary of State, and he replied that we could not push our services as arbitrator upon Great Britain, nor act as such unless requested by both parties. Then the Venezuelan authorities, apparently finding the Manoa Company of no service in a political way, declared its charter forfeited (September 8, 1886), and did not renew it until they fancied that there was a prospect of embroiling our Government in the dispute. If this fancy turns out to be a miscalculation, the Manoa grant will probably be declared void again. It is as easy to upset a land grant in Venezuela as it is to upset a government, and nothing is easier than that.

Recent Venezuelan despatches put in a charming light the kind of government this country is asked to go to war to extend over 40,000 British subjects. There is a revolution going on, of course—there always is; that is the way all elections are held and Presidents chosen in Venezuela. But President Crespo, who himself got his office by a revolution, has issued a decree affirming that this revolution is particularly heinous on account of pending international complications; that it is, in fact, treason, and that all persons caught in it will be shot out of hand. Eminent lawyers in Carácas say the decree is illegal. This will make it Crespo's painful duty to shoot the eminent lawyers, too. The jails are already overflowing with political prisoners, and the school-buildings are now being used as prisons. This will not check the great work of Venezuelan education, as the students are all enlisting for the war, anyhow. An awful suspicion is abroad that the "illustrious American," Guzman Blanco, is in England arranging a little treaty of his own, with his pockets full of British gold. This report was a hard blow to the patriots, who are usually in the fix of the Georgia free-silver patriot, certain that "we've got the gold-bugs down unless they buy us up." But a shrewd counter-stroke was made by asserting that the $100,000,000 in gold which the United States are now trying to borrow was all to be passed on to Venezuela to aid her in her war against England. This aroused tremendous enthusiasm for "the immortal Monroe"; and "the busts of Washington, Monroe, Cleveland, and Bolivar were entwined with rare flowers." And yet there are those who say that republics are ungrateful!

Senator Morgan is clearly of the opinion that the Monroe Doctrine can be extended over the Transvaal, otherwise his resolution expressing "the satisfaction of the United States at the successful stand of the Boer Government," and "directing President Cleveland to transmit a message to this effect to the President of the Transvaal Republic," has no cause of being. The *Tribune* asks anxiously whether Great Britain "will resent this," but we really think there is no cause for alarm. She must be "on to" Morgan by this time, for he has been roaring at her steadily now for many years. The only persons who are likely to be distressed by this latest outbreak are Lodge and Chandler, who will be alarmed lest Morgan get ahead of them as haters of England and apostles of the doctrine of "the immortal Monroe." Morgan has a great advantage over the latter, for he is a member of the committee on foreign relations, and can thus have his own resolutions considered seriously and possibly reported.

Major Ricarde-Seaver writes in the last *Fortnightly* forecasting the course of events in the Transvaal. What he predicts is that the patience of the 40,000 Uitlanders will soon be exhausted; that there will soon be a hostile demonstration against the Boer Government; that "Paul Krüger and his Hollander friends" will be "sent to enjoy themselves on the banks of the Amstel" (Amsterdam), and then will come in a new régime. He quotes from a late speech of a progressive Boer in the Volksraad to the effect that the Uitlanders have built Johannesburg, which in a few years will contain 150,000 inhabitants; that they pay three-quarters of the taxes; that they cannot be naturalized, nor their children, under fourteen years of residence, and that the settlement of their claims has been relegated to a convention to be held in 1905. Major Ricarde-Seaver adds that a "few Hollanders and Germans at Pretoria lead Krüger, while Krüger leads his Dopper Boer population, and 'owns' their representatives in Parliament." It is plain from all this that an armed attempt at revolution has been running in the Uitlander head for some time, and that Dr. Jameson was not called on unexpectedly to go to the assistance of the Johannesburgers.

Gov. Morton's appointment of George P. Lord as a member of the State Civil-Service Commission is shockingly bad. Not only is Lord an unfit man for the place, but, in order to get him into it, the Governor forced out Mr. McKinstry, a faithful and efficient Commissioner, who has performed valuable service in abolishing political influences from the public service of the State. Lord, whose chief backer is Senator Raines, and who is a thoroughgoing Platt spoilsman, will use all his powers as Commissioner to undo the work which his predecessor and his associates have performed. It is said that the Governor has appointed him in accordance with a political "deal" which has for its object the control of the commission by Platt; and whether this be so or not, there is no question that this will be the outcome, unless the Governor shall decide upon recalling Lord's name from the Senate. Unless he does recall it, it will be impossible to treat seriously his professions of sympathy with civil-service reform. He already has a Platt editor on the commission, and if he persists in putting a Platt politician there with him, leaving Col. Burt in a hopeless minority of one, he will turn the service of the State over to Platt's mercy with all that this implies.

Judge Barrett's special-jury bill, which is now before the Legislature, ought not to be allowed to fail of passage. No measure has ever gone to Albany which can be more properly described as the outcome of experience and the product of expert ability than this. It was drawn by Judges Barrett, Ingraham, and Beekman, and is

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lesigned to remedy defects in our jury system which their experience has shown to exist. Its primary object is to give us competent juries for the trial of accused persons whose performances have become, either through political or other associations, a matter of great notoriety. As Judge Barrett says, the experience in our courts with the recent police cases is a striking illustration of the need of the new system. Not only was a conviction obtained with great difficulty, but the time consumed in the successive trials congested the courts and entailed great expense upon the city. So discouraging was the result of the McLaughlin trials that the other police indictments were dismissed. The consequence of this was very demoralizing, both upon the police force and upon the public mind, for it gave the impression that little had been accomplished by the Lexow inquiry towards real reform in police matters. This result was only too typical of what has happened repeatedly in other cases; and unless something is done to prevent such outcomes in future, we must, as Judge Barrett says, face the fact that criminal justice in this county is a failure. The Legislature, we are sorry to say, is not a body which is likely to pass a measure of this sort of its own free will. There is nothing in the measure for "politics," and the Platt-Tammany combine which is in control at Albany has no interest in pure justice. The Bar Association should take the leadership in pushing the bill through, and in arousing such public sentiment in its support that the Legislature will not dare to refuse its passage.

The appointment of Dr. John S. Billings, now rector of the Department of Hygiene in the Pennsylvania University, as librarian of the new consolidated libraries in New York, has been formally confirmed, and its importance for the new enterprise cannot be overrated. Not only is Dr. Billings's fame as a medical man world-wide—he has been loaded with foreign scientific honors—but he has done one of the most remarkable pieces of cataloguing ever known, in making the Index Medicus and the Catalogue of the Surgeon-General's Library at Washington. The Index Medicus is, in fact, a marvel of skill, industry, and accuracy. His genius is specially shown in his capacity for organization—that is, for getting the right men for particular work. He has valuable gifts in other ways than cataloguing—his knowledge of books, his experience in collecting, his knowledge of building—and they all tend towards making him singularly fit for the place he is taking. The selection of the librarian was the crucial point in the consolidation scheme. The wrong man would have deprived it of half of its value. With Dr. Billings its success is assured.

Lloyd Lowndes, the new Republican Governor of Maryland, makes a good start. In his inaugural address he takes pains to acknowledge that he could not have been elected but for the support of many independents, and declares that "while I shall try to do my duty towards my party, I shall also remember I am the Governor of the whole people of Maryland, and as such give all due consideration." This, of course, is only a general statement, but he was specific also. Under the Gorman machine the appointing power of the Governor in Maryland has been increased to an extent equalled in no other State, so that there is an immense number of "plums" for a Republican Governor to deal out. But Mr. Lowndes comes out in favor of restoring to the people the right of selecting public officers "wherever it can be done with due regard for public interest, this being in harmony with our theory of government and a safeguard against centralization of political power in the hands of the Governor." He also declares against anything like a "clean sweep." While admitting that some of the State officials should give way to those more closely allied in principle to the party in power, he holds that "we should heed the demand for civil-service reform, and extend, wherever practicable in this State and its principal cities, the merit system of appointments to office." He discusses the use of money at elections, which he says is increasing in Maryland so rapidly as to demand the especial attention of the new Legislature. "Our election laws," he says, "should be amended and so framed as to insure to the people absolutely fair registration; to guarantee to every voter the inestimable privilege of casting his vote with the right to have that vote honestly counted, and to secure to the people honest machinery of elections without any advantage to the party in power"; "violations of these laws should be clearly defined, the method of proof facilitated, and prompt and severe punishment should follow conviction." Altogether, Gov. Lowndes talks like a really independent man, and in Congress twenty years ago showed that he could live up to independent principles when the pinch came.

Texas Populists have made what is to them a saddening discovery, that there are alleged evils or discriminations in railroad transportation rates which even the State Railroad Commission cannot remedy. The Populist mind cannot comprehend why freight rates should not be uniform per mile, regardless of the length of the haul. A through rate from Waco to Boston for 85 cents, against 59 cents from Waco to Houston, they denounce as an unjust discrimination, and the Texas Commissioners echo the opinion. But when it is learned that the Commission itself has made the rate for the 500 miles from Gainesville to Houston the same as the rate for the 140 miles from Cameron to Houston, the Populists wonder whether they have gained anything by the adoption of a constitutional amendment providing for the election of Commissioners by the people. As the Commissioners are Democrats, it is felt to be incumbent upon the Democratic party to defend or explain their acts, lest converts be made to the Populist plank of State ownership of railroads. The task is a difficult one, for complaints come from all quarters of the State. Southern Pacific alleged discrimination against south Texas ports is matched by alleged discriminations against Dallas and common points in north Texas by the Gould and other lines, and at Austin there is a bunching of lawsuits and investigations involving the rights of the railroads and the powers of the Railroad Commission. Out of it all may come, the Texas Democrats hope, an educational influence on the Texas rural mind, to change the conception of what constitutes wrong in railroad charges, and the equally fallacious conception of what a Railroad Commission is constituted to do.

Pope Leo's appeal to Christendom for union with the Catholic Church did not meet with the warmest response from the Protestant world, but for absolutely chilly reading one should turn to the reply of the Holy Catholic and Apostolical Orthodox Church of the East. A translation of the encyclical letter on the subject sent out by the Patriarchs, all of them "loving brothers in Christ and well-wishers," has just been published, and certainly shows that the Greeks are still ready to prove their doctrine orthodox by apostolic blows and knocks. The Bishop of Rome is sternly exhorted by them to "shake off, once and for all time, the many and divers innovations which, contrary to the Gospel, have been stealthily introduced into the Church." Until he is prepared to do that, and to abide, in company with the Orthodox Church, "by the divine apostolic traditions and by the rules of the first nine centuries of Christianity," all his "proposals of reunion are vain and empty words." The document is a long one, and filled with vigorous argumentation to show the Pope's "manifest contradiction with himself," his "side-retreat and admission," etc. The Patriarchs make a square offer to leave the question to arbitration, as it were, asserting their readiness to submit to Rome if she can prove her doctrines "out of the teaching of the Fathers and of the divinely assembled Œcumenical Councils." They close with an exposure of the "vain device of the Bishop of Rome" in pretending to refer them to "original sources," intimating that they know a thing or two themselves about original sources. All told, the Pope's sincere and praiseworthy efforts to bring about the reunion of Christendom have resulted in nothing except a strong reaffirmation by each division of its willingness to unite with all the others whenever they wish to surrender unconditionally to it.

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AMERICAN HATRED OF ENGLAND.

No one who has taken the trouble during the present crisis to look into the Jingo mind, can have failed to find, behind all irritation about the Monroe Doctrine or the Venezuelan boundary, a deep hatred of England and a strong desire to do her some kind of harm. As the same feeling is very rife in other countries—France and Germany, for instance—it is worth while to examine its nature and causes.

It is not difficult to account for it in Europe. No nation there quite likes the men of any other nation. International hates or dislikes are the natural result of 500 years of wars, carried on until very recently with great atrocity, about boundaries, about titles, or for mere glory, or to preserve "the balance of power." Then differences of manners, of standards of morality, and of religion, and trade jealousies, help to keep alive the old prejudices arising out of these wars. It is only ninety years since Nelson taught his middies to "fear God, honor the King, and hate Frenchmen," as the whole duty of young Englishmen.

The great increase in intercourse between England and the Continent has done a good deal to allay these antipathies, but it has supplied other causes of English unpopularity, notably a more extensive contact with English manners. That these are good, even the warmest admirers of England will not venture to assert. They have for a century played a leading part among the sources of Anglophobia. The most provocative feature in them is the English habit of ignoring strangers in places where people are brought into close contact, such as cafés, restaurants, hotels, and public conveyances. In all such places few foreigners ever fail to acknowledge the presence of others, not as either gentle or simple, but as human beings. The foreigner either bows, or speaks, or indicates by tones or looks or behavior of some sort that he is conscious of the presence of fellow-men. Englishmen are very apt, on the other hand, to affect absolute ignorance that they are not completely alone. By keeping a close watch on them they may often be caught taking a peep at you, by way of curiosity, but they instantly avert their gaze as if taken *en flagrant délit* in a low act, like reading private letters. All this, to a Frenchman or Italian or South German, is very galling or irritating. It is partly due to shyness, but also, partly, to the English fear of making undesirable acquaintances; or, to put it differently, to an Englishman's assumption of superiority to everybody whom he does not know. To this must be added an undeniable superiority to the mass of Continentals in the matter of personal cleanliness and comfort. Of this matter the English have for a century made a careful study, and foreigners of the upper class widely imitate it, but it enrages a great many of the other kind when forced by English travellers on their notice.

The English differ, too, from the Continentals in this, that their code of manners makes no provision at all for strangers. That is, it does not "run," as the conveyancers say, with the individual himself, but with his acquaintances. An Englishman does not know how to behave to you till he knows who you are. He owes nothing to himself in his way of treating you. To a Continental, on the other hand, his manners are part of his personal equipment, like his gloves or his cane. An Austrian or French gentleman is extremely polite to every one he meets, as something due to himself. He behaves this way because this is the way gentlemen ought to behave. The Englishman, on the other hand, considers only what the stranger is entitled to in the way of consideration, and what this is he cannot tell till he finds out who he is, and in the meantime he treats him with no consideration at all.

Most of these observations, however, will hardly apply to the American dislike of England, for America has the same language, and, if not the same religion, the same religious ideas; and, if not wholly of the same race, thinks she is, and has had only one short war with England since the beginning of the century. Wars, too, which are carried on between peoples 3,000 miles apart do not breed the intense hates excited by an enemy on one's own borders. Then Americans have but very slight familiarity with English travellers. Comparatively very few visit this country, and they are apt to be a picked class who come over to marry our rich girls. While, too, our commerce with England is enormous, we have little or no commercial rivalry with her, because the protectionist policy which has prevailed for the past thirty years has substantially withdrawn us from the great foreign markets, or at all events, has caused us to treat them as undesirable objects of search.

The usual answer a Jingo makes to inquiry as to the cause of his desire to fight England, is that she is "grabbing" and "insolent." There is a certain truth in both these charges. But her "grabbing" since 1815 has been, in general, of barbarous countries, as in India and Egypt, or of savage countries, as in Africa. In all these cases it has resulted in the covering with law and justice and security of vast populations who have for ages known nothing of these blessings. What is of more importance for the purpose of this discussion is, that she has grabbed no territory to the benefits of which she has not admitted all nations on an equal footing. She has not in recent times attempted to apply to any of her possessions the old theory that colonies exist for the benefit of the mother country. Trade and protection are offered in them all on equal terms to Americans as well as to Englishmen. In every one of them the American enjoys all the rights and privileges which would be given him by American dominion. A British conquest is substantially an American conquest without the expense and worry. Moreover, nothing has been "grabbed" from America. There is, and has been, no boundary dispute which has not been settled amicably. The British in Canada have been peaceable and unobjectionable neighbors. Any unpleasantnesses that have occurred have been caused by tariffs, and have been easily adjusted by retaliation. The newspapers occasionally interchange incivilities, but they have always been recognized as strictly "journalistic," and therefore harmless. So that it is hardly possible to find in the "grabbing" charge a real *casus belli*—that is, one of the motives which make men wish to kill their enemies, destroy their property, and fill their land with mourning.

We think it likely that if the secrets of all hearts were known, the hostility to England would be found in the sort of ambition with which our immense material development has filled so many people, and which makes even writers like Capt. Mahan call for a Gibraltar or Malta of our own, and for "keys" in all sorts of out-of-the-way places by sea and land. The revelation which has come to us since the rebellion of the extent of our resources has spread the idea that, to be a great nation, as Great Britain is admitted to be, we must have a large number of outlying dependencies and a very big navy as she has. These things seem to thousands, if not millions, the only visible signs of national success, like the rich man's furniture and "costly mansions." The jealousy of Great Britain expresses itself, therefore, in the eager expectation of every Jingo, when he is going to seize something himself, that England will come forward and try to take it from him. It will have been observed that for a long time past every politician who was advising annexation or acquisition of any place, has confidently predicted that, if we did not take it, England would surely do so.

The "insolence" complained of has not been shown in diplomatic correspondence, so it must be found in "social intercourse." Social intercourse is mainly limited to persons who go to England in search of society or acquaintances, and who, no doubt, often encounter snubs or depreciation, covert or open. But the remedy for this is not war, but staying at home. It must be remembered, too, that we take no pains to present our best national side to foreigners. In the choice of our consular and diplomatic representatives, for instance, we often seem to invite their contempt, and the impression our newspapers give of us may be guessed from Matthew Arnold's talk about them in his letters. The prosperity of these delineators of our life and manners naturally leads strangers to suppose that they faithfully represent us, and they create a view of America which is not flattering and is difficult to conceal. But the cure for all this is not throat-cutting and house-burning, but self-respect and self-improve-

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ment. Better legislators and better administrators would do more for the national fame, and command more foreign deference, than a thousand battle-ships.

"NATIONAL HONOR."

THE Boston *Herald* asked the other day, with much point, apropos of the new navy for which enormous sums are being appropriated, what the navy was for. The navies of the great naval Powers are meant to carry on wars with each other, which their past history and experience lead them to expect. They expect to have to fight, as they have fought for hundreds of years, for prestige—that is, to decide which is the leading Power. In the past this leading Power—that is, the Power whose word weighed most with the smaller states—has been either England or France. Under Louis XIV. and Napoleon it was France. After 1815 it was England. Under Louis Napoleon it was France again. Then Germany appeared on the scene, and it became Germany. Ever since the peace of 1815, too, Russia has lowered on the horizon as a possible competitor for the place, and at all events a very important ally for any of the more active competitors. In the last century, England and France contended for India and North America. England succeeded in both cases. She drove France out of India and out of America. In this century, England, France, and Germany are contending for the continent of Africa, and, besides this, the long-impending break-up of the Turkish Empire seems to be at hand, and it is well understood that there will have to be a division of the territory. So that it may be said that only one old bone of contention between the Powers (Italy) has been removed within this century, while a very considerable one (Africa) has been added.

We see here clearly enough why all these Powers need a navy. They have in view numerous causes of quarrel. The big ones need large navies in order to intimidate or subdue their rivals. The smaller ones need small ones in order to make their alliance worth the courting by the big ones when the general scrimmage begins. And this has gone on for ages—ever since, in fact, Europe came out of the mediæval darkness. The United States of America was founded in order to get a portion of the civilized world out of this Donnybrook fair, to provide a corner of the earth in which men could live without having constantly enemies to watch and suspect.

There does not exist in our case a single one of the reasons which excuse large navies in Europe. We have no hostile neighbors. We have no foreign possessions. We have no interest in European quarrels. Since 1812—that is, since we became a moderately large community—no foreign state has shown any disposition to quarrel with us. In all the disputes with foreigners which looked serious, our known resources, and the plain difficulty of getting at us for purposes of mischief, have been sufficient for our protection. In no foreign question have we been baffled or overborne or worsted; witness the Mexican trouble and the *Alabama* trouble. In fact, there is not in our past the smallest support for the theory that we need a large navy. The prediction that we shall need one in the future must rest either in the belief that the stronger, larger, and richer we grow, the more disposed European Powers will be to attack, or in the belief that we meditate great transpontine contests. No Jingo holds any such belief. He will not affirm that every time we add 10,000,000 to our population, or $100,000,000 to our revenue, foreigners will feel more moved to invade us or bombard our ports. In fact, the reason which a Jingo always falls back on, when hard pressed, for wishing to live in complete armor, is that somebody may assail our "honor"—that is, say something offensive, or refuse to submit to some demand of ours, or resent some of our language. It is impossible beforehand to describe or define injuries to honor, because honor is an impalpable thing. Invasion, seizure of territory, blockade of ports, injuries to trade, maltreatment of citizens, as causes of quarrel are easily estimated and understood, but national honor is a creature of the mind.

In Europe it may be said that, as a rule, national honor means what individual honor used to mean in duelling circles—that is, the belief among other people that you were not physically afraid; or that if anybody did anything to annoy you, he would have to fight you. An offence against your honor was therefore something which indicated that somebody else might annoy you in some way without having to fight you; that, in short, he doubted your courage. If, for instance, he called you a liar or a thief, his offence lay, not in these aspersions on your truthfulness or honesty, but in the assumption that you would put up with them. Your remedy, therefore, was not to disprove his charge, but to try to kill him. This inconsequential character of the duel between individuals has often been exposed. It accounts for the prevalence of the duel in barbarous ages and countries. There has never been more honor at the South than at the North, or in France than in England; there has simply been more fear on the part of each man that other men would think he was deficient in physical courage. Accordingly each person was the sole judge of what concerned his own honor. Nobody but himself knew in what his honor consisted or what was injurious to it.

The adoption of this private code of honor by the European nations is not surprising. It is of the last importance to each that the other should think it very fierce and touchy. This keeps them from attempts on each other's possessions, and keeps the small ones in proper awe of the big ones. If one intimates in some way that it thinks the other reluctant to fight, it is an imputation on the national honor, and has to be avenged. If this suspicion is pushed too far, it has to be quelled by war—that is, by an immense destruction of life and property.

That we shall suffer substantial damage from any power, such as invasion or physical injury, we do not suppose any one in his senses believes. The use of the navy is to punish people who think we are afraid to fight. Our honor will be in charge of somebody in Washington whom no individual would intrust with his own honor and he will say when the national honor has been hurt, and whether the injury calls for destruction of life and property. Our honor, too, after the war is over, will remain in precisely the same condition as before. No apology will be made on account of it. The two parties will simply compare the number of their dead, and their losses of property, make peace, and go on as before. In short, when we get our navy and send it round the world in search of imputations on our honor, we shall have launched the United States on that old sea of sin and sorrow and ruffianism on which mankind has tossed since the dawn of history. We shall have formally made the duellist's code part and parcel of American polity, just as the old slave States are abandoning it. We shall have abandoned as a failure the greatest experiment any government ever made.

"ONE-MAN POWER" IN AMERICA.

THE London *Economist*, in discussing the course of the President regarding the Venezuelan controversy, treats his action as "a severe object-lesson in the weak places of the Constitution." It holds that "the recent interruption to the calm progress of the republic" was caused by Mr. Cleveland alone, and it finds in the incident an illustration of "the dangerous ascendency which the system gives to a single officer, whose competence is as little secured by the mode of choosing him as it is by the hereditary principle." It asks Americans to consider "whether their Constitution has not a fault; whether it does not, like a despotism, render it possible for one man, in his own interest, or out of his own defect of judgment, to work injury to his own people upon the most colossal scale?"

The *Economist* admits that the President cannot really act, in any question of internal politics, in opposition to the national sentiment, that his messages are of no weight unless the people endorse them, and that Congress, by refusing money, can arrest the course of the most self-willed or ambitious of Presidents. But it holds that, nevertheless, our system allows the national executive to cause "volcanic shocks" as regards external affairs without any effective responsibility, and that "if a President is ambitious or vain, or, which is even more dangerous, under the dominion of ideal-

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ogues, he is able at any moment to make as great, and it may sometimes be as disastrous, a commotion as any absolute king."

The subject thus opened up is both interesting and important. In establishing the system of checks and balances, the framers of the Constitution devoted especial attention to the problem of making the executive efficient without giving him absolute power. He was made commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States and of the militia of the several States when called into the service of the nation, but the dimensions of the federal army and navy are determined by Congress, and those of the militia by the States. He was given the power to formulate treaties with other nations, but such treaties do not become operative without the concurrence of two-thirds of the Senate. He was authorized to make nominations for a great number of important offices, but his nominations must be approved by the Senate in order to become effective. As regards the tremendous prerogative of declaring war, that was expressly committed to Congress, for reasons thus stated by Story:

"The power to declare war might have been vested in the President. In monarchies the power is ordinarily vested in the executive. But certainly in a republic the chief magistrate ought not to be clothed with a power so summary, and at the same time so full of dangers to the public interest and the public safety. It would be to commit the liberties as well as the rights of the people to the ambition, or resentment, or caprice, or rashness of a single mind."

The truth is, that the Constitution leaves but one way open for a President to take action which might necessarily involve the nation in war. It is provided that "he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers." Story, writing in 1840, was of the opinion that this is a far more important and delicate function than it was deemed by the framers of the Constitution. While conceding that it might properly be confided to the executive alone in times of profound peace throughout the world, he pointed out that, in cases of revolution, the acknowledgment of an ambassador or minister might lead to an open rupture, and the receiving or the refusal to receive one "may even provoke public hostilities." For example, if the Cuban insurgents were to send a minister to Washington, and Mr. Cleveland were to accept him as the representative of the ruling power in that island, Spain would undoubtedly regard the act as practically equivalent to a declaration of war against her. Story himself had seen "abundant examples of the critical nature of the trust," and he inclined to the view that some check ought to be imposed upon the unlimited discretion given the executive by the Constitution.

But Mr. Cleveland was not guilty of any abuse of this power in the Venezuelan matter. All that he did was to "recommend to the consideration of the Congress such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient." His message of December 17 recommended the passage by Congress of an act establishing a commission to determine the true divisional line between Venezuela and British Guiana. He made plain his own belief that, if the commission should determine that Great Britain had trenched upon the rights of Venezuela, we ought to notify her that she must back down or fight us. But he did not and could not commit the Government to this position. He could not even, as a leader of one party, by taking the course he did, carry his proposition through Congress as a partisan measure, for his party controlled neither branch. What caused the panic and precipitated a crisis was the surrender of all responsibility by Congress, and the readiness of both houses to make the President's attitude their own.

We hardly see how the Venezuelan incident can be considered to show a weakness in our written Constitution. The weakness is rather in the men who compose Congress. A national executive must have some power, and the President of the United States could hardly be intrusted with less than he now possesses unless some check were put upon his absolute discretion in the matter of receiving ambassadors. The whole tendency of our governmental development has been towards an acceptance of the theory that executive responsibility insures deliberation and caution. What the *Economist* calls "Mr. Cleveland's escapade" shows not so much an unsuspected weakness in our frame of government as in its present executive head. It is one of those risks which we must run under the wisest possible system of checks and balances.

POPULAR LOANS AND SYNDICATE LOANS.

CURRENT discussion of the impending $100,000,000 Government loan has revealed a vast amount of ignorance as to the nature, principles, and necessary machinery of Government borrowing. Vague recollections, or hasty and imperfect generalizations, have largely taken the place of clear-headed reasoning from existing conditions; and this is true, unfortunately, not alone of self-advertising newspapers and obstructive Congressmen, but of many fair-minded private citizens. We believe it to be true that there are thousands of people who do not sympathize with sensationalism, and would personally be glad to see the loan placed with a compact and powerful syndicate, but who nevertheless believe that the Government sacrifices its credit by such an award.

Classifying them roughly, it may be said that Government loans are issued for three distinct purposes—to raise capital for immediate expenditure, as in the case of war loans; to replace maturing high-rate bonds with bonds at a lower interest rate, as in "conversion loans"; and to provide gold for maintenance, through Treasury reserves, of the standard of value. We shall see very readily that the conditions governing the issue of a loan depend entirely on the class to which it belongs. The huge loans of the civil war, for example, belong unmistakably to the class first mentioned. They were issued simply to borrow capital, and to borrow it for Government expenditure far beyond current income. From this fact it resulted, first, that subscriptions to a loan might be continuous without any permanent disturbance of the money market. When the funds were taken, either directly or indirectly, from bank deposits, they were so promptly disbursed to soldiers or contractors that they were back in the bank reserves again within a month—credited, indeed, to other owners, but equally available for the general money market.

This was not the only peculiarity of the Jay Cooke loans of the war period, if those can be called popular loans in which a commission was paid to a banking-house. The circulating medium had expanded enormously, the net increase in the year preceding July, 1863, being $260,000,000, or more than 75 per cent. This increase had been effected chiefly by issues of Government notes in vast quantities. Now the 6 per cent. bonds offered in the loan of 1863 were sold at par for Government notes. Since the notes were at a discount, then, of 35 per cent., and since the bonds were payable, interest and principal, in coin, the offer was very tempting. In substance, the citizen was invited to exchange on even terms a non-interest-bearing obligation of the Government for another obligation paying about 10 per cent., considering the premium on gold in which the interest was paid, plus the probable increase in the value of the principal. The success of Jay Cooke and his sub-agents in floating this enormous loan in all the cities and towns of the United States was hardly surprising, under such conditions. But it is not at all difficult to see how little analogy that situation bears to the problem of 1896.

By the act of February 26, 1879, the sale at par of 4 per cent. "refunding certificates," convertible into the regular 4 per cent. bonds of 1907, was authorized; these certificates to be issued in denominations of $10 only, and to be sold to private individuals over the counter of all sub-treasuries, national banks, post-offices, and other Government agencies. Specie payments had been resumed, and the rush to buy these bonds was one of the sensational episodes of the year. The city agencies were literally overwhelmed, and the incident is often quoted as a proof of what can be accomplished through a genuine popular loan. But there was very good reason for the success of the popular loan of 1879. The certificates were sold at a fixed price actually below the market for the 4 per cents into which they were convertible. They were sold for currency at the very same price

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at which in 1877, before resumption, a block of the same 4 per cents had been sold to a syndicate of international bankers who paid in gold. As a matter of fact, the Treasury officers had reason to believe that the greater part of the $40,000,000 "refunding certificates" of 1879 were snapped up by speculators who went so far as to hire "repeaters" to stand in line for the subscription, and who sold the certificates at an advance in the open market as soon as they got them in their hands.

This explains why the loan was so immediately successful; but it was feasible, from the Treasury's point of view, for another reason. By the terms of the act authorizing the popular loan of 1879, its proceeds were to be applied "only to the payment of the bonds bearing interest at a rate of not less than 5 per cent." In other words, this was a refunding operation pure and simple, and the funds received on subscription to the loan, like those received for the loan of 1863, were promptly disbursed through Treasury purchases, and reappeared on the general money market.

Now a loan to raise gold for the permanent reserves of Government is clearly a very different operation from the two already described. If, indeed, the currency of a nation were gold alone or chiefly, then a popular loan would be paid as naturally in gold as it would be here in notes. But the very fact of the existence of such a currency would preclude the necessity of such a loan. A Government has no need to supply itself with gold reserves unless it has been engaging in the banking business through circulating its own redeemable notes as currency. By the very fact of such note issues—if they are redundant—the Government will itself have prevented free circulation of gold in its people's hands. Every one knows that this is our own situation. There is plenty of easy-going talk about the "hoarded gold" in the people's possession which will come out immediately under a bond subscription. The idea seems to be, if we may believe the advocates of the popular loan, that individuals the country over have their gold laid away in old tea-pots or stockings, ready to appear when bidden. How great an illusion this notion is, was sufficiently proved by the total failure of the people at large to bid, under the popular-loan advertisements of January and November, 1894.

Another widespread error is the idea that the bankers in the syndicate want these new bonds at 105 or thereabouts, and that they hope that the "popular loan" will be a failure. Nobody can hold this opinion who has mingled with the members of the syndicate during the pendency of the loans of the past two years, including the one now pending, and who has known how reluctant they were and are to take these bonds. The reason is perfectly plain to anybody who understands the banking business. Every dollar of cash in a bank forms the basis of four or five dollars' worth of discounts, upon which the bank draws interest in the same way as from money loaned. Take the quarterly statement of any bank, or of all the banks together, and you will see that the loans and discounts are four or five times as large as the amount of cash on hand. This is true of State banks and private banks exactly as it is of national banks. The converse of the proposition is true also, viz., that for every dollar of cash subtracted from their reserves and handed over to the Governnient, they must curtail $4 worth of discounts. Not only must they incommode their customers in that ratio, but they must forfeit their own gains in like proportion until they can sell the bonds and get their money back, and with it their power of discounting commercial paper. The truth is, that this Government loan is in all essential particulars a forced loan, and the members of the syndicate would hail it as a boon to be relieved of it altogether.

PRESS AND GOVERNMENT IN GERMANY.

PRESS prosecutions for the offence known as "lèse-majesté" have been so frequent in Germany of late that it becomes of interest to inquire into the press laws of the German Empire. A condensed account of the various ways in which German newspapers are brought under the control of the authorities has just been published by Dr. E. P. Oberholtzer of the Philadelphia *Evening Telegraph*, in a pamphlet of 180 pages, entitled 'Die Beziehungen zwischen dem Staat und der Zeitungspresse im Deutschen Reich' (Berlin: Mayer & Müller).

The principal object which the Continental press laws of Europe have in view is to restrict journalistic criticism of the Government and of privileged persons, rather than to protect private citizens in general from invasions of their privacy. The liberalizing tendencies which date from the revolutionary period of 1848 have had for one result the abolition of the censorship of the press, which now survives in Russia only. The libel laws of Germany, so far as offences against private persons are concerned, can hardly be regarded as excessively stringent. The truth of a publication may be pleaded as a sufficient defence in criminal as well as in civil proceedings. It may be assumed, however, that if German newspapers were to follow the lead of our sensational journals and make it a practice to drag private matters into print, the lawmaking power would grant more effective redress than is enjoyed by our helpless public. When it comes to resenting newspaper attacks on the authorities, there is no lack of energy in the legislation of Germany. The publication of any statements or reports, whether true or false, which may be construed as offensive or insulting to certain privileged persons, is prohibited under stringent penalties. Criticism, anecdotes, rumors, any expression of opinion which may have a tendency to degrade or ridicule such persons, will render the perpetrator liable to prosecution. At the head of such privileged persons stands the Emperor, and joined with him are the other reigning monarchs of Germany. The families of the various rulers are likewise protected, but the penalties for an offence against them are not quite so severe. A third category is composed of foreign potentates, among whom, however, presidents of republics and the Pope are not included. Then follows a descending scale of functionaries, through foreign ambassadors, members of the federal council (Bundesrath), etc.

Aside from libels and other offences against individuals, the press is restricted from publishing anything which may be offensive to the community by reason of immorality, indecency, or blasphemy; or which may be regarded as an incitement to rebellion or to resistance against the law; or which may stir up classes of the population to acts of violence against each other. A newspaper may not publish fictitious or distorted news which may throw contempt on governmental institutions; or false reports concerning foreign countries whereby German citizens may be misled to emigrate; or fraudulent statements made for the purpose of inducing the public to buy shares in the stock of a company or calculated to influence stock quotations. A curious law is that which prohibits newspapers from opening subscriptions for the public payment of a fine imposed by a court of law, or even from publishing reports of moneys contributed for such a purpose.

In addition to prescribing what a newspaper may not publish, the law also provides that there are some things which a newspaper must publish. In certain cases it must publish a reply from persons who feel aggrieved by an article containing a misstatement of facts. The reply must confine itself to facts, must be signed by the writer, and must be free from offensive expressions. If it exceeds in length the article, or the parts of an article, to which it replies, the additional room which it fills must be paid for at the usual advertising rates of the journal concerned. The reply must be printed at once, without any alteration of the text or any misleading head-lines, and it must appear in the same part of the paper and in the same style of type as the original article. Newspapers are also required to publish official announcements sent to them by the public authorities, but are paid for them as advertisements. In this manner they may be compelled to publish judgments rendered against themselves in libel suits.

In order that there may be no evasion of responsibility for an infraction of the various laws we have referred to, it is provided that every newspaper must print in every number the name and residence of its "responsible editor"; and, in order to prevent the setting up of a dummy for this purpose, it is further provided that the responsible editor must actually be employed as one of the editors, and must be vested with authority to determine the contents of the paper. In the eye of the law he is the author of the entire journal, or of that part of it which falls within his province, for a newspaper may appoint one editor for its political part, another for the literary feuilleton, for the advertisements, etc. A failure to comply with this regulation, or any false representation, will render the paper liable to summary confiscation. The publisher's name and that of the printer must also appear in every issue. A copy of every number must be delivered to the local police authorities as soon as the distribution of the paper begins. The power of summary confiscation, which we have just spoken of, is a very effective weapon in the hands of the authorities, and even if it extends only to a single issue, and for a few hours, may do serious if not irreparable injury to a daily paper. It may be

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exercised in certain contingencies by the police authorities without the intervention of a judicial order or judgment, and there appears to be no practical redress for its abuse.

Quite peculiar is the German system of delivering newspapers to subscribers outside of the place of publication. Within a radius of ten miles thereof a paper may be delivered in any manner the publisher prefers; outside of that it must be sent by mail or by special messenger—that is, newspapers cannot be forwarded as freight or by express. The post-office claims a monopoly of the business, and acts not only as a carrier or forwarder, but also as subscription agent. Every postmaster throughout the realm receives subscriptions for every newspaper, and delivers papers to subscribers. The postmaster of the town in which the paper is published informs the publisher how many copies are wanted, and they are then regularly delivered in bulk and forwarded to their respective destinations. The publisher does not know the names and addresses of his subscribers, which are known only to the postmaster of the place where they live. As a matter of favor a publisher may learn how many copies go to each place, but nothing further. The publisher fixes the price at which he is willing to sell his paper to the Post-office Department; to this the latter adds 25 per cent. to pay for its service, including postage, and thus arrives at the charge to be made to subscribers. In December of each year the Berlin post-office issues a price-list of newspapers for the coming year, and sends a copy of it to every postmaster to guide him in receiving subscriptions, which may be for three, six, or twelve months. There is a detailed system of regulations according to which the business is conducted. For instance, a limited number of free or "sample" copies and of exchanges is carried as a matter of courtesy, charging the regular tax of 25 per cent.; when papers are delivered at residences by letter-carriers there is an additional charge, amounting, in the case of daily papers, to 40 cents a year. While this method has some conveniences, they are counterbalanced by drawbacks. Its principal recommendation is that it is cheaper than mailing each copy in a separate wrapper at the regular rate of postage for printed matter, which is the alternative offered to publishers.

Some of the hindrances to which newspapers are subject in Germany, and which would seem intolerable to Americans, are the incidental result of the general scheme of legislation. Thus, newsdealers and newsboys must have a license, but so must all itinerant vendors; a newspaper may not post a bulletin of its contents, because the Prussian law prohibits the exhibition of placards. More serious consequences arise from the fact that in Germany the telegraph and the telephone are a monopoly of the Government, which claims and exercises the right of refusing to forward any messages which the officials consider detrimental or objectionable.

In the matter of copyright for newspaper articles the law does not seem to be entirely settled. News is considered as public property and not copyrightable. On the other hand, literary productions and scientific discussions may not be reprinted without permission, and as a general thing any article of any length can be brought under the same protection by printing a notice to that effect at the head of it.

From the hasty view here presented, and which, of necessity, could take into account only the salient points of the law and custom, it will be seen that the press laws of Germany partake of the paternalism and of the faith in bureaucratic guardianship characteristic of the country. It should be remembered that there was a time, not so very long ago, when English newspapers almost had the life taxed out of them, and, to go further back, when editors risked imprisonment and the pillory if they presumed to report the proceedings of Parliament. In Germany, France, and Italy there has been a gradual relaxing of the severity of the press laws during the past half-century, and where the letter of the law has retained its old-time harshness it has been mitigated in practice by the milder spirit of the age. There is a German proverb to the effect that no broth is ever eaten as hot as it is cooked; the actual condition of the German press is by no means so abject as one might infer who looks only at what might legally be done to it by the officers of the Government.

PROHIBITION IN MAINE.

BRUNSWICK, December 28, 1895.

IT is now nearly forty-five years since the first prohibitory liquor law was enacted in Maine. The act "for the suppression of drinking-houses and tippling-shops" was approved June 2, 1851, and with it began in the United States the era of attempted regulation of the liquor traffic by prohibitory legislation. The law of 1851 was no sooner on the statute-book than it was found to be insufficient, and down to the present time some fifty additional or amendatory acts have been passed. In 1884 an amendment to the Constitution was adopted, prohibiting the manufacture and sale of intoxicating liquors, except for medicinal and mechanical purposes and the arts. The general features of this mass of legislation are probably well known. Severe penalties are provided for the illegal sale of liquor and for drunkenness. The possession of a United States internal-revenue license is to be taken as evidence that liquor is illegally kept for sale; and druggists are not authorized to sell. Officers of the law are given large powers of search and seizure, extending in some cases to seizure without a warrant. The sale of liquor for medicinal, mechanical, and scientific purposes is provided for by a system of town agencies, their stock being furnished by a State liquor commissioner appointed by the Governor. The establishment of a town agency is optional with the selectmen, and at present less than twenty of these agencies are in operation. The law now requires an analysis by a competent chemist of the liquors actually sold by the agents; and the State commissioner is limited by statute in the percentage of profit he may exact in his dealings with the towns.

A great deal has been said and written about the "Maine Law" by both advocates and opponents. So far as the principle of the body of legislation commonly referred to as the "Maine Law" is concerned, probably that is no longer open to serious question; for while we may decline to admit that everything a people does is right, we cannot now deny the abstract right of a people to prohibit a traffic which it deems dangerous to peace and prosperity. Discussion nowadays rightly turns, not on the theoretical rightfulness of prohibition, but upon its practical usefulness in attaining a desired or desirable end. The Maine Law undertakes to stop the sale of intoxicating liquors as a beverage, and in consequence to lessen or put an end to the habit of liquor-drinking; and in these aspects not only has it been much talked about, but many of its provisions have been copied in other States. Yet the real test of a law is not at all the amount of interest it excites, but rather the degree of success with which it does what it was designed to do, and its resulting effects upon the habits and modes of thought of the people subject to its influence.

As to the practical effect of the Maine Law in suppressing the sale and limiting the use of liquor, testimony is very conflicting. Some temperance agitators, a few ministers, and public officials when speaking for the State, as a rule uphold the Law, and claim that it has been a success—that liquor is much less used than formerly, and that the open saloon, flaunting its temptation in the face of passers-by, has disappeared. On the other hand, one hears it asserted, with equal positiveness, that the Law, so far as its primary object is concerned, is a patent failure; that in every considerable community liquor is still sold, if not openly, yet with but a thin screen between it and the public; that the use of liquors has not greatly diminished, and that drunkenness is common. About a year ago a correspondent of a Boston daily paper made an extended study of the question, embodying his observations in a series of articles that were widely read and commented upon; yet it may be doubted if the articles changed many persons' opinions. The friends of the Law insisted that the reported instances of "general violation" were isolated and microscopic, such as any detective might ferret out, while the opponents of the Law, of course, pointed to the articles as sustaining all they had ever charged. In ordinary discussion it is quite impossible to reconcile these opposing arguments, for the very practical reason that one specific instance of positive badness will effectually offset a great deal of general assertion of prevailing goodness.

It seems clear that in this matter, as in so many others, the truth does not lie at either extreme. In the small villages and remote country districts the Law is generally well enforced, and illegal selling is not extensive. In the cities and larger towns, with some few exceptions, the Law is either spasmodically enforced, or more or less openly violated. As a rule, hotels either have liquor on the premises for sale, or will obtain it for their guests; in a few cases hotel bars are maintained, with but slight pretence of concealment. Druggists commonly do not hesitate to sell to persons whom they know and can trust. But illegal sales are almost invariably made with at least a show of secrecy, the elaborate and pretentious fittings of the typical saloon are lacking, and a person must often make considerable inquiry before finding a place where a purchase can be made. There are of course "dives" and "joints" in all the larger centres; but as there is always a low stratum of wickedness which no legislation can remove, the existence of such places should not in itself be urged against the efficacy of the Prohibitory Law. With the exception of the better class of hotels and drug-stores, the liquors illegally sold are often of the poorest quality. In no part of the State is drunkenness unknown.

More to the present purpose, however, than these facts, obvious enough to any candid person who keeps his eyes and ears open, is the question as to the state of public feeling in Maine in reference to the Prohibitory Law; and on this point there are two or three considerations which seem to me to be of some importance, but to which attention has usually not been much directed. To begin with, one cannot know Maine very long without remarking the absence of a steady and constant sentiment in favor of the enforcement of the

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Law. There is a noticeable lack of firm pressure in this direction. It seems to be generally assumed, as a sort of fundamental proposition, that the Law either cannot or will not be enforced; and so, as long as violation is not flagrant or notorious or offensive, there is a disposition to close the eyes to its quiet but general evasion. On the other hand, public feeling on the subject gets a good deal of spasmodic expression. Every few months a wave of reform sweeps over a community: sermons are preached, mass-meetings held, law-and-order leagues are revived, and "Lexow committees" investigate and report. City and town officials, with sheriffs and policemen, are of course quick to note the new drift, and to meet it with a series of liquor raids and seizures, and sweeping imposition of fines upon sellers. But such tension on the moral sensitiveness cannot be long maintained, and in a few weeks the excitement is over, and sales and evasions go on as before. There is hardly a considerable town or city in Maine that has not at one time or another been through such an experience. The agitation does no good, but, rather curiously, it also does no harm: the last state of the community, while not better, is certainly not worse than the first. And the explanation seems to lie in what has just been said, that a certain appreciable degree of violation of the Law is expected, and public feeling is aroused only when that normal point is passed.

Partly in consequence of these periodical agitations, partly also as a result of the prevailing sentiment, the so-called "Prohibitory" Law is in many places simply a license law. Every six months or so the proprietors of hotels, drug-stores, and other places where it is known that liquor is illegally sold—and such places are well enough known—are brought before a court, either in person or by attorney, and fined; the fines paid, the persons are not again molested until the time comes round for the next regular raid. The amount of liquor fines paid into the several county treasuries aggregates many thousands of dollars annually, affording a striking example, as some one has put it, of a revenue legally obtained under false pretences. A few years ago an attempt was made to punish illegal selling by both fine and imprisonment; but juries refused to convict, and the former method of punishment by fine alone had to be resumed. A judge of one of the State courts told me the other day that to imprison a well-known and respectable citizen for violating the liquor laws would in many places almost provoke a riot. The meaning of all this seems to be that the great majority of the people are not sufficiently anxious to have the Law strictly enforced to tolerate measures stringent enough to secure that result, but are satisfied with an administration that at once prevents the running of open saloons, drives the liquor traffic into semi-retirement, and swells the column of receipts in the balance-sheet of the county treasurer. In this aspect Maine has "prohibition for revenue only."

One test of a prohibitory law is the extent to which it has diminished or changed the habit of liquor-drinking. It is, of course, obvious that on such a point one cannot quote statistics or make statements that are very exact or precise. There is still a good deal of hard drinking in country places in Maine, and the stuff consumed is often of the deadliest kind. In the cities and towns a certain portion of the population, always accustomed to drink in moderation, now drink at home instead of in public places. So far as the great mass of the population is concerned, I think there can be no doubt that the general absence of open saloons, and the consequent round-about and belittling methods that must usually be resorted to in order to get liquor, have appreciably lessened the consumption of all kinds of liquors, and have even tended to put the drinking habit itself on the defensive; and no one will deny that the removal of saloon influence from a community is a very great gain to good order, morals, and health. As for social drinking among the well-to-do, there seems to be good ground for thinking that it has somewhat declined. Comparatively few persons, even among those who make occasional or even regular use of liquor in their own families, would care to offer it to their guests at table, except to intimate friends; and the majority of public or semi-public "functions" of one sort or another somehow contrive to get on without alcoholic embellishment. Some social clubs have liquors for the use of their members; but in general, so far as the use of liquors is concerned, there is no "social law" to which any one, whatever his social position, need conform. In public as in private life, society leaves each man free to decide whether he will drink or whether he will not; and probably most men in Maine decide that they will not.

Any impartial observer would, I think, have to admit that the success of the Prohibitory Law in this State, although significantly qualified, is after all considerable. But I cannot think that the experience of Maine affords any warrant for the belief that a similar system would have equal or greater success elsewhere. I am of course aware that that kind of argument is common with professional advocates of prohibition; nevertheless, the position seems to me to be at once dangerous and unsound. The Prohibitory Law has been as successful as it has in Maine, not because of anything especially good either in the general principle or in this particular application of it, but very largely because of certain social conditions peculiar to the State. Maine is a thinly settled State, with a population chiefly engaged in agriculture, lumbering, and the fisheries. Its cities have all less than 40,000 inhabitants, and all but one have less than 25,000; there is no massing of population, and no overwhelming foreign element. The great manufacturing industries of New England are not largely represented in Maine. It is apparent that conditions such as these greatly simplify all problems of law and order, and give any kind of sumptuary legislation a favorable field. Moreover, even rigid enforcement of the Prohibitory Law would not necessarily prevent any individual from obtaining liquors for his own use, for the simple reason that adjoining States, not under the prohibitory régime, at once become sources of supply. If Maine could not obtain an abundant supply of liquors from Boston or some other convenient point, I am decidedly of the opinion that the enforcement of the Prohibitory Law here would be very much less efficient than it is now. That is to say, even with the aid of favorable local conditions the success of prohibition in one State depends very greatly upon the absence of prohibition in neighboring States; and it should not be forgotten that in this country the system has always been tried under these conditions. To insist upon the universal practicability of prohibition as a method of regulating the liquor traffic, pointing meanwhile to the operation of the law in Maine as an illustration of "how it works," is both idle and misleading unless these vital qualifications be also made.

With the Prohibitory Law become in many places a license law, and with considerable general violation and evasion, it is not surprising that every little while the repeal of the Law, or the resubmission of the Constitutional amendment, should be advocated. But any one who should suppose that such action is at all probable, at least for a long time to come, would, I fancy, entirely misinterpret public feeling on the subject. Certainly the agitation to that end receives but scanty support. Notwithstanding the palpable weaknesses of the system, both in theory and in practice, the mass of the people undoubtedly are satisfied with it; there is no desire to reopen the question and precipitate another volume of discussion and agitation; and there is no general feeling of incongruity in the spectacle of a license system masquerading as prohibition. In practice, such a state of mind does less harm than might be supposed. As a live political issue, prohibition is no longer of importance; but professed adherence to the principle is still a test of political orthodoxy, and alleged "public sentiment" is used as a club with which to terrorize politicians. Politically, however, prohibition is in Maine only a name to conjure with.

WILLIAM MACDONALD.

SPANISH ART IN LONDON.

LONDON, December 30, 1895.

IF Velasquez was forgotten—if, as Mr. R. A. M. Stevenson puts it, his genius slumbered for two hundred years—certainly he is now having his revenge; for to-day, when there is reference to the art of Spain, it is usually supposed to mean Velasquez, and Velasquez only, as if he were the one artist who ever lived and worked in the land lying south of the Pyrenees. And inasmuch as the master can, notoriously, be really studied as he should solely in Madrid, to organize a show of Spanish art in London might be thought to court failure. But, after all, though Velasquez does tower head and shoulders above them, there were other painters in Spain, and, moreover, painters often of decided originality, as may be learned in the Prado's cellars, or half-divined in many a Toledan dimly lit church and chapel; while, in the more purely decorative arts, the Moor-inspired craftsman and the artisan of the Spanish Renaissance stand well-nigh unrivalled. Though the masterpieces of Velasquez can still be claimed by Madrid's gallery, though only in Toledo can Il Greco's greatness be realized, though there have been many to think with Gautier that even Murillo is not to be appreciated until seen in the cathedral and museum of his native town, it is as true that much else of Spain's great art-work is to be found nowadays more fully represented almost anywhere abroad rather than in Spain itself; perhaps nowhere to better advantage than in England. For, if that beautiful grove of elms on the Alhambra's hill is held up as proof of the English conqueror's benevolence, there can be no doubt that the Great Duke amply repaid himself for his trouble with the art treasures which he and a multitude in his train carried home with them from the pacified Peninsula. When these facts are remembered, in the success of the show of Spanish art just opened in the New Gallery there will seem less cause for wonder. Without question, it is so far the most interesting and delightful in the winter series of historical exhibitions given at this same gallery.

The first impression, as you enter the central hall, is one of unwonted sumptuousness.

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Even the splendor of last year's Venetian decoration pales by comparison. Here, indeed, is something that, at a glance, reminds you, not of the tawdry modern Spanish palace, but rather of Seville's Capilla Real, for instance, if yours has been the good fortune to see it when resplendent with gorgeous hangings and shining with precious plate and jewels, in honor of St. Ferdinand. There may be an element of barbarism in the wealth and exuberance of Spanish ornament, and yet it never lacks the touch of austerity that chastens and refines, and that is so eminently characteristic of the country's art in its best periods. Tapestries, rich in their faded beauty, hang from the four sides of the hall's high balcony. Frames of embroidered and jewelled priestly garments, chests elaborately carved and gilded are set against the walls. Arranged with some feeling for the general effect are cases filled with rare pottery and gold and silver plate, and exquisitely chased daggers and rapiers, breastplates and helmets; and in the hall's very centre, well raised, stands a horse in complete war harness of the fifteenth century; at its feet tulips and other flowering plants, so that it looks like the horse that steps among blossoms in so many an old tapestry.

To speak of all these things in detail would be quite impossible, since in the two large galleries, as well as in the hall, are cases of exquisite embroideries and rare stuffs and laces and fans and jewels and combs and ivories, and still more pottery and glass and plate. Besides, for collector and amateur, there is a very thorough catalogue to supply all illuminating facts and dates; while the finest pleasure is reserved for those who can revel in the loveliness of color that everywhere leaps to the eye, in the loveliness of design that everywhere reveals itself upon closer study. On the other hand, it seems as impossible to speak of the collection as a whole without pointing out how surprisingly few examples of Moorish work it contains. The Spanish Renaissance is the period most largely drawn upon. The Moor's own design, or evidence of his direct influence, which in Andalusia long survived the Conquest, is found only here and there in the arms and armor, and more often in the pottery. One vase, covered with the familiar arabesques, comes from the famous Malaga works, and dates as far back as the eleventh century, its interest being enhanced by the fact that a foot supporting it was made by Fortuny. There are, besides, numerous specimens of Hispano-Moresque ware which show to what admirable advantage, blue, the color thought by some painters so impossible in a picture, can be used in the conventional ornament of dishes and jars. But then it is in the pottery, especially of the South, that Moorish influence perhaps lingered most persistently. In the very coarsest made for the people to-day in Malaga and Seville, you may still see the old Moorish shapes, and traces of the old Moorish color schemes, just as you see the old Moorish blood in the faces of so many of the men and women.

In the pictures, of course, one does not look for any suggestion of the Moor, who is responsible for so much that is best and finest in Spain. Here must be sought all that is most characteristic of the Spaniard himself; for the painter, unlike the potter or the decorator, was ever independent of Moorish principles and tradition. The exhibition gives a fair idea of the measure of his accomplishment, from his first efforts down to his most recent performances. It is inevitable that some periods and some artists should have less justice done to them than others; inevitable that masterpieces have not in every case been forthcoming. But, as a whole, the collection is unexpectedly complete. The Primitives appear in small numbers, but yet in sufficient force to assert that sound and somewhat original decorative talent which they display so impressively in the Prado's cellars, to recall the golden glory with which they shine from shadowy altars in Cordova's mosque, or from the chapel of many a forgotten monastery. Zurbaran's sombre penitents and monks have been found to fill the appropriate space upon the walls, and Ribera's more exuberant saints and virgins. If there be little by such men as El Mudo and Herrera the elder, this little is so unusually good as to justify the reputation they once enjoyed better than the more extensive showing they may make in Spanish galleries. Indeed, in El Mudo's portrait of Doña Maria Padilla there is a rich, warm glow, a softness in the flesh tints, that one is more inclined to attribute to the kindness of time than to the genius of the painter. But if Herrera really painted the marvellous little partridge on the wing here ascribed to him, as delicate and subtle a bit of modelling as if it were by the master of to-day, he must count for more than one fancied as a factor in the development of Velasquez, who was his pupil. And there is really no reason except its excellence, the almost unprecedented naturalism of the painter's method, to doubt the picture's authenticity. It is the property of Sir Clare Ford, and once belonged to Richard Ford, author of the indispensable Handbook to Spain, who bought it for the work of Herrera at Seville in 1831.

Again, of El Greco, who fortunately seldom figures under his full name of Domenico Theotocopuli, there is enough to explain the sudden interest lately aroused in him. His greatness has been so obscured in the dim sanctuaries of Toledo's churches, or so hopelessly hidden in Toledo's monasteries, across whose thresholds no laic foot was allowed to pass, that there has been, and, for that matter, is, small chance to study his pictures in the very town where so much of his work, as painter as well as sculptor and architect, was done; out of Toledo there is scarcely any chance at all. In the Prado itself he is quite inadequately represented. Here, in the National Gallery, there is but one example of him, and this one is a recent acquisition. The Spanish exhibition boasts some half dozen of his pictures, a St. Martin, a Christ with the cross, a Christ chasing the money-changers out of the Temple, and one or two portraits. In his treatment of religious subjects there is a primitiveness more naïve than that of the men who preceded him, and the results are at times unpleasantly flat and hard, without a premonition of the triumph of the master who dipped his brush in air and light. But there is in them a dignity of composition, an effective color mosaic, and an individuality in the way of seeing things and expressing them, together with occasional wonderful drawing and modelling, that make him as distinguished among his contemporaries who painted saints and Christs according to rule, as a Sargent seems in the Academy, a Carrière in the Salon.

I have always wondered at Gautier's delight in the Murillos at Seville. There, above all places, I thought the overdone sentiment and the mawkish prettiness of the painter sadly emphasized, though there is not, as at Madrid, a Velasquez to set the standard. Whatever vigor, whatever personal element is in his art, makes itself felt now on the walls of the New Gallery far more than in rooms that are filled with his flamboyant Assumptions and ecstatic monks. For the well-known "Beggar Boys" has been borrowed from Dulwich; several of his portraits are included, among them one of himself, its prosaic homeliness of presentment a curious contrast to the swagger with which Velasquez ever painted his own portrait; and there is also a landscape, bathed in atmosphere, though not in southern sunlight, to which the old Spanish painter was deliberately blind—in the foreground, a group of trees somehow suggestive of Corot—which is, without doubt, the most genuinely observant and poetically expressed Murillo I have seen.

Alonso Cano is another painter who pleases here more unreservedly than in his native town. If I except a little statue of a saint in the Cartuja, I remember nothing of his in Granada to equal the stately group of well-posed figures in his "Assumption," and the well-balanced composition of his "St. Francis in Ecstasy," which both come from private English galleries.

But when all is said, interest now, as whenever Spanish painting is in question, centres about Velasquez. I must admit my disappointment upon discovering that some of his most important canvases owned by Englishmen have been omitted. There are few things in the Prado that surpass his marvellous "Venus," belonging to Mrs. Morritt and hung with the Academy's Old Masters of 1890; but for this occasion it has not been lent. A small sketch for "Las Meninas," of private ownership at Kingston Lacy, is likewise missing. Nor have several portraits from royal galleries been allowed to add to this collection's importance. It is again a disappointment to know, without the aid of the new critic's foot-rule and photographs, that so many canvases to which the catalogue tags on the name of Velasquez could not possibly be his work. There is, for instance, a replica of the incomparable Doria Pope which, though if measured up scientifically it might be proved irrevocably his, leaves one sceptical simply because it lacks the masterly elegance of his touch, the subtlety of his modelling; while one is as positive that the other, from Apsley House, though it has been declared not his by complacent authorities, could not have been painted by any one else, save another genius as great. Masterpieces may not abound, save in copies, but there are sufficient good examples to make the collection of enormous use to the student of Velasquez, viz., several of his very early water-carriers and boys of Seville, powerful in their uncompromising realism, though without those qualities which mark his later work and which have made the modern painter look to him as the first impressionist; the little Don Carlos from Buckingham Palace, the Prince on his prancing horse in the courtyard, the King and Queen looking down from the balcony; the portrait of his slave Pareja—it may be the very one he sent about with Pareja himself to show what a swell he, the most daring of all innovators, really was as a portrait-painter; the Quevedo in spectacles from Apsley House; a little sketch of Saint Sebastian, a good strong study of the nude which, it is curious to note, belongs to Mr. Holman Hunt; the Philip from the Dulwich Gallery, said not to be his. But it is needless to name them all; excepting Madrid, probably there is no place the world over where Velasquez is to be seen so satisfactorily as just now in London, thanks to this Spanish exhibition, supplemented by the National Gallery.

The modern Spaniards fare less well. Of Goya, in his way another fearless innovator, there are but two or three indifferent por-

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traits, and one or two more characteristic sketches and lithographs of the bulls and bull-fights which were his chief delight. Fortuny, third among Spanish painters if ranked by the extent of his influence, is more fortunate. Besides the etchings, which every one knows so well, there are several of his water-colors, a singularly beautiful unfinished "Acrobats at Tetuan" which, may be, would have lost in color and charm had it been carried further, and a picture, "Transport of Arab Prisoners," a wide sweep of hillside broken by the curving line of the long train of flying draperies, with, beyond, a glimpse of a blue sea: a composition full of a beauty, rightly felt, rightly expressed, which Fortuny too often sacrificed to clever tricks of technique and brilliant mannerisms. The few unimportant Ricos could easily be overlooked, which is a pity, for the collection would have gained in usefulness had the modern Spaniards, as eager to paint sunlight as the old men were to ignore it, been granted a more appreciative recognition. Vierge is omitted altogether, and so is Casanova, though Madrazo, with his clever yet vulgar portraits, finds a place. But if the show is not entirely beyond criticism, it still remains the most notable held in London for many a long day. N. N.

Correspondence.

THE MAIN QUESTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Allow me to express to you the sincere gratitude which I feel for the admirable editorials which appeared in a recent issue of the *Nation* upon the course followed by President Cleveland in the Venezuelan controversy. Before I read that series of articles denouncing the much-applauded message, and showing what a ridiculous and unstable position Mr. Cleveland had taken, I was, from a sense of patriotism and a feeling that the United States ought to protect Venezuela in her rights, a hearty and admiring supporter of that position. When I first read the articles referred to, I was slightly prejudiced against them by their rather bitter and violent language—I like sober discussion; it carries much more weight than rabid denunciation or scathing sarcasm. But the arguments which were submitted, after careful perusal and thought, and laying aside the prejudice created by the heated language, pressed themselves upon my mind as reasonable, logical, and true.

The articles referred to, understand, are those upon the course taken by the President, and not those regarding the right and wrong of the controversy. I do not think either one of us is able to reach a conclusion on that point. But allow me to again thank you for the light which you have shed upon this important matter.—Sincerely yours,

Robert A. Allen.

Sioux City, Iowa, January 4, 1896.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I cannot refrain from congratulating you upon the just and fearless and Christian tone of your editorials upon the Venezuelan question. While I speak only for myself, I have no hesitation in saying that the almost universal opinion in western Canada, and, indeed, throughout the whole Dominion, is one of deepest regret that even the possibility of war between the two great brother nations should be considered by any wise men as anything but utterly deplorable.

The talk of the Jingoes in American newspapers seems to us quite absurd, and—were it not so wicked—almost amusing; and our hope is that this talk does not represent the sober common sense of the great mass of the American people, whose keen commercial instincts and Christian sentiment must make evident, after a second thought, the ruinous folly and wicked barbarity of war on such a plea.

Your remarks upon the Jingo chaplain's prayer (*sic*) appear to me singularly felicitous. It is difficult to understand the notion of the Deity out of which such a prayer could arise. The best judgment of the best men is on your paper's side, and this the future will make abundantly plain. While Canada is devotedly loyal to the Empire, and would willingly send her last son to defend it, she has only the kindest feeling for the people of the United States.

I hope you will pardon this note. With hope and prayer that both nations may be guided to do the right and wise thing, I am yours, etc., Charles W. Gordon.

British Canadian Nor'-West Missions,
Winnipeg, January 3, 1896.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Waiving for the present the further threshing out of the Monroe Doctrine—although I am with Prof. von Holst in his analysis of the same—two points occur to my mind that ought to be carefully considered.

(1.) In round figures, the total population of the world is estimated to be 1,400,000,000. About 10 per cent., or say 140,000,000, comprise the English-speaking people, united by ties of blood, traditions, literature, laws, and religious aspirations. Are not the English-speaking people rapidly encroaching upon the slower-moving members of the human race? Is it not the proud boast of every member of the Anglo Saxon family that we are the dominant factors in repressing the unruly, and making civilization, culture, and progress a reality and not a dream? Separate or split in two the British Empire and the United States, and say what will be the fate or future of either nation, assuming that the suggested and much-talked-of war were finally precipitated. Do political leaders in either country fully realize what mischievous doctrines, like Russian thistles, are being scattered broadcast, inciting people to cultivate hatred, cruelty, and bloodshedding?

(2.) Land and gold-mine grabbing and booming during the last twenty-five years has gone on at an accelerated pace in all portions of the globe. The average American citizen differs in no wise and in no respect from the average enterprising Englishman or European. Electric and steam motive power, plus the efficient cable and telegraphic service, has made it possible for quick-witted men the world over to forestall markets and make fortunes for many with great rapidity. Excessive and unlimited confidence in America and its marvellous resources has enabled us, through the use of foreign capital, to build and operate in the United States alone almost one-half of all the railway mileage of the world. The total railway mileage of the world was recently placed at 350,000 miles, and our system, exclusive of sidings, embraces about 170,000 miles. British capital to the extent of $2,000,000,000—or about two-thirds of the total indebtedness against our lines held in Europe—has come to us since the war of the Rebellion. Did any of us sneer at the British during the period of track-laying when Englishmen lent us their money? Did not our leading citizens in every State cry out for more money to build new roads? Did not our own State of Iowa get its one-twentieth of our total mileage referred to from money borrowed from London? "Sell more bonds in London and extend our road" was the lofty talk of the promoter. How many more millions of British money have come to us for loans upon our breweries, mills, factories, and what not? Can all this enterprising talk be so quickly forgotten, and our young people inspired to hate England and the people who so generously trusted in our good intentions, our honesty, our integrity, and our sense of justice?

I am sick at heart as I observe the prevailing sentiment suggesting war. It is my earnest hope that thoughtful people will "keep in memory" all our fair talk and promises in our interrelated financial dealings with foreigners.

Joseph Sampson.

Sioux City, Ia., January 9, 1896.

A WAR AGAINST CIVILIZATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Among the recent utterances reported in regard to the excitement occasioned by the message of President Cleveland, I have been particularly impressed with the language employed by the Rev. Dr. Huntington of Grace Church, New York, who says "that he would not shrink from a war if it were for the right, but asking on what grounds some Americans propose to go to war with the civilizers of the world."

England is truly a civilizer of the world. Who that has travelled in the East can fail to be impressed with the truth of this statement? Every one recognizes the striking contrast between the condition of things at Gibraltar and the little Spanish town just across the "neutral ground." A writer with whom I travelled last winter, in describing a visit to the latter, says: "We came back through the begging rabble of ragged children and filthy women, passed the line of Spanish sentries, and in a few more steps we entered the line of English sentries, and were again in a civilized country." No one can spend a little while in Cairo without observing the helpful and elevating influence which England is exerting over Egypt. In Palestine, England's civilizing power is specially exhibited in towns such as Nazareth, Tiberias, and the like, where English chapels and schools are established.

England is "a civilizer of the world." Wherever she exerts her influence, it results in the uplifting of the people and the benefiting of humanity at large. W. D. Morgan.

Baltimore, January 10, 1896.

SEWARD VERSUS CLEVELAND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In support of the position taken in your editorials that the recent declaration of the President is not warranted by the Monroe Doctrine, I beg to cite a passage from the instructions of Mr. Seward, Secretary of State, to Mr. Kilpatrick, June 2, 1866:

"The Government of the United States will maintain and insist, with all the decision and energy which are compatible with our existing neutrality, that the republican system which is accepted by any one of those [South American] States shall not be wantonly assailed, and that it shall not be subverted as an end of a lawful war by European powers; but beyond this position the United States Government will not go, nor will it consider itself hereby bound to

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take part in wars in which a South American republic may enter with a European sovereign when the object of the latter is not the establishment, in place of a subverted republic, of a monarchy under a European prince."

Yours respectfully,

FRANCIS MCLENNAN.

MONTREAL, January 6, 1896.

JINGO GEOGRAPHY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Prof. McMaster, in his exposition of the Monroe Doctrine, published in the New York *Times*, would have us believe that "Great Britain is to-day attempting to take from Venezuela not 30,000 square miles, as is commonly stated, but 109,000 square miles, to which she has no just claim whatever." As 109,000 square miles represents the area of the whole of the undisputed British possessions and the disputed territory combined, we must conclude that Prof. McMaster's interpretation of the Monroe Doctrine is that we should make it retroactive, go back of 1823, and drive the British invaders clear into the ocean, not leaving them an inch of foothold which might serve as a "base of operations" to disturb Secretary Olney's repose. So much for Jingo geography running amuck. We trust that Prof. McMaster will institute proceedings against our wicked and un-American publishers of school-books, who, ever since he first conned his Primary Geography, have been trying to make innocent little children believe that British Guiana does not stop short of the sixty-first meridian. LOUIS HEILPRIN.

SUMMIT, N. J., January 11, 1896.

THE ATHENIAN FORUM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: An excavation was begun here to day which is likely, whether its results be positive or negative, to prove of highest importance for the determination of Athenian topography. Dr. Dörpfeld has long been convinced that the Stoa Basileios, which Pausanias saw "on the right-hand side" (i., 3, §1) as he entered the Kerameikos Agora—the central town-square of Athens in the classical period—was located close against the eastern slope of the Kolanos Agoraios, the knoll upon which stands the so-called "Theseion." The identification of this "Theseion" with the temple of Hephaistos, described by Pausanias (i , 14, §6) as standing "above the Kerameikos and the Stoa called Basileios," lends added precision to the location. Combining this interpretation of our ancient guide-book with what recent excavations about the southwestern, western, and northwestern corners of the Areiopagos have shown concerning the general direction and levels of the ancient street leading toward the Acropolis, Dr. Dörpfeld has brought his archæological faith to a conviction which he is willing to test in terms of drachmas. As public means are not forthcoming for the work, he has purchased with private money, partly his own, two house-lots on the west side of Poseidon Street, a street running parallel with the face of the "Theseion" knoll, and there he began to day tearing down a dwelling-house preparatory to the excavation which, within three weeks or a month, is likely to furnish an unmistakable answer to the central question in Athenian topography. It is estimated that the foundations of the building sought must lie under about twenty-five feet of earth. While this greatly increases the difficulty of the work, especially in view of the narrow space open to excavation, it involves a compensating assurance that under the protection of the earth much has been preserved Particularly is this to be hoped for the numerous legal inscriptions which are believed to have existed upon the walls of the Stoa. Though the wooden ἄξονες and κύρβεις containing the laws of Solon, which formerly stood here, had gone to decay probably before the end of the fifth century B. C., it is known that copies of at least portions of the Draconian and Solonian codes were set up here in stone.

If the excavations just beginning should result in the discovery of traces of the Stoa Basileios, the Greek Government would undoubtedly proceed directly to exappropriate enough land in the vicinity to admit of search for the Stoa Poikile, the Stoa Eleutherios, the temple of Apollon Patroös, the Metroon, the Bouleuterion, and the Tholos. All these buildings can readily be located, once the clue has been given by the discovery of the Stoa Basileios. Much zeal and much money have been expended in past years in uncovering relics of post-classical buildings in the later market places to the east, such as the Hadrian Stoa and the Attalos Stoa, but the real thing, the forum in which the characteristically Athenian life was manifested and was made, has, strange to say, been hitherto left to a shadowy and somewhat restless existence in the vague or ill-comprehended allusions of the ancient writers.

BENJ. IDE WHEELER.

AMERICAN SCHOOL, ATHENS, December 27, 1895.

INSTITUTES AND NOVELLÆ.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Frederic J. Stimson has rendered such immense service to his profession and the public by his monumental collation of 'American Statute Law,' that when he would recreate himself by an excursion into airier and lighter fields of literature, every one owes him the tribute of good-will. He has begun, in the January *Atlantic*, what seems likely to be a capital story, "Pirate Gold." But it begins (p. 73) with a special deposit in a Boston bank of a bag labelled as containing, on the 24th of June, 1829, besides Spanish doubloons, "four hundred and twenty-three *American twenty-dollar gold pieces.*" Now, inasmuch as that coin appears to have been struck for the first time by virtue of the act of March 3, 1849 (9 U. S. Stat. at Large, 397), is not this just "a little too previous"? And, considering whom it comes from, should it not serve as an encouragement to some of the rest of us who slip up now and then in our history and our law?

When the professor of mnemonics had departed from the hotel, after gathering about him his bags and bundles, the porter came rushing to the clerk, exclaiming in wide-eyed wonder: "The memory-man has forgotten his umbrella!" T. B.

ROCHESTER, January 7, 1896.

A TESTIMONIAL TO KIRCHHOFF.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Many Americans who in days gone by have had the privilege of sitting at the feet of Prof. Adolf Kirchhoff of the University of Berlin will doubtless be pleased to learn that a committee, including many distinguished names, has been organized in Berlin for the purpose of honoring this great classical scholar upon the occasion of his seventieth birthday and the fiftieth anniversary of his doctorate, to be celebrated on February 4, 1896. It is proposed to present to Prof. Kirchhoff a bronze (or, if the subscriptions prove sufficiently large, a marble) bust of himself, executed by Martin Wolff. Heliotype copies will be furnished to all subscribers.

The undersigned, having been requested by the committee to solicit subscriptions in this country, hopes that the appeal herewith made will meet with a ready and speedy response, realizing a substantial sum, as a visible proof of the esteem and admiration which the American pupils of Prof. Kirchhoff entertain for their illustrious teacher. Subscriptions, of whatever amount, should be accompanied by the full address and present occupation of the donor, and should be sent in not later than February 1.—Yours respectfully,

ALFRED GUDEMAN.

UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

Notes.

D. APPLETON & CO.'s announcements for the current month include Prof. G. Frederick Wright's 'Greenland Ice-Fields, and Life in the North Atlantic'; 'The Monroe Doctrine, and Other Studies in American History,' by Prof. J. B. McMaster; 'Studies of Childhood,' by Prof. James Sully; 'Criminal Sociology,' by Prof. E. Ferri; 'The Story of the Solar System,' by George F. Chambers; and largely rewritten editions of 'California and the South,' by Dr. Walter Lindley, and 'The Sun,' by Prof. C. A. Young.

A uniform subscription edition of the works of the late Eugene Field, in prose and verse, will be at once undertaken by Charles Scribner's Sons, in a truly elegant manner, even to such a refinement as using "a superior deckle-edged paper, containing, in water-mark, Mr. Field's initials on every page." Each of the ten volumes will have a photogravure frontispiece on Japan paper. One hundred numbered sets will be printed on Japan paper.

'A Handbook of Greek Sculpture,' by Ernest Gardner, will usher in a series of "Handbooks of Archæology and Antiquities" projected by Macmillan & Co. They also announce a second series of 'Legends of Florence,' by Charles G. Leland, and 'Richelieu,' in their "Foreign Statesmen" series, by Prof. Lodge of Glasgow.

An interesting series is promised in the "Warwick Library of English Literature," edited by Prof. C. H Hertford. Each volume is to trace, by means of a critical introduction and chronologically ordered selections, a single "literary growth" or *genre*. The one volume now in hand treats of the 'English Pastoral,' and is competently edited by Edmund K. Chambers. His introduction, conceived in the broadest spirit of comparative criticism, is (although necessarily summary) clear and full of suggestion. We should like to see the outlines filled out into a more detailed study. The selections comprise only the verse Pastoral, and are chosen mainly from the Elizabethans, who alone among Englishmen, according to Mr. Chambers, have taken the Pastoral seriously. This limited life of the bucolic *genre* gives the present volume a completeness and unity which cannot but be wanting in the next promised issues of the series—'Literary Criticism,' 'Letter-Writers,' 'Tales in Verse,' 'English Essays,' and 'English Masques'; nevertheless, the study of *genres* is an inevitable outcome of the conception of literary evolution, and

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ıide-books" like the "Warwick Library" ;t prove invaluable to the teacher and to independent student distant from library tres.

Tay & Williams, Chicago, are about to e 'Hand and Soul,' by Dante Gabriel Ros- i, reprinted from the *Germ* by William ris at the Kelmscott Press. Three fifths he limited edition has been reserved for country.

acmillan & Co. have added Marryat's 'Pe- Simple' and Disraeli's 'Sybil' to their ex- ent series of illustrated standard novels; génie Grandet' to their Balzac; and 'Due parations for the Plague' and 'The King he Pirates' to their Defoe, which is now ıght to a conclusion, and which, typogra- ally and in the matter of editing, ranks ng the most satisfactory series undertaken ing the past year. The bookmaking here, ı the case of Balzac, is Dent's.

e have already noticed the first volume Ir. E. S. Hartland's 'Legend of Perseus,' in ch he discussed the supernatural birth of hero. Since then a second volume, nearly e the size of the first, has appeared (Lon : David Nutt), devoted to the "life-token." vill be remembered that in fairy tales the of the hero is often connected with some pathetic object which indicates his danger eath. This object has either some original ıection with the hero (as where he is born ı a portion of a fish, and the sympathetic ct, a rose-tree, from another portion), or erely arbitrary, as where the hero plants a which indicates his fate. The belief which erlies these tales is the basis of witchcraft ıpathetic magic, philters, etc.), and ex- ıs the ceremonies observed at sacred wells trees. With it are also connected totem- and the funeral rites involving the eating ceremonial meal, and the similar observ- s at marriage. As the author truly says, liscussion of the "life-token" goes down e very foundations of the savage philoso- of life. He might have added that it also erns vitally the basis of our own religious f. In comparison with the questions d in the present volumes and the infer- s which may possibly be drawn from the nous mass of custom and belief presented all parts of the world, the discussions of "higher criticism" shrink into absolute nificance. Mr. Hartland intended to com- his work with the volume before us, but rd will be required to deal with the two ining incidents of the legend—the dragon- ng and the Medusa-witch. A supplement- ›ibliographical list and an index are also ıised with the final volume.

number of papers contributed to *Scrib- Magazine* during the last two or three s have been collected and published by the ›ners under the title 'The Poor in Great s.' London, Paris, Naples, Boston, New :, and Chicago, all have furnished mate- 'or these essays, which are largely narra- in character, and are of varying merit. volume is profusely illustrated, mainly by s from photographs, so that it appeals to ye of the careless reader. But we appre- that the chief effect of these descriptions accomplished by their original publica- and that careful students of the condition e poor will demand somewhat more syste- : and scientific treatment of the subject is here attained.

newhat in the line of Herbert Spencer's cation' is 'Nursery Ethics,' by Florence Winterburn (New York: The Merriam This little book, however, is rather more practical than Mr. Spencer's, and is adapted for earlier stages of education than his, dealing even with pre-natal influences. We do not hesitate to say that the parent who can read it without benefit must either have attained perfection or be beyond the reach of grace. Most of us will find our parental sins of omission and commission very clearly described in these pages, and few that have the care of children will fail to derive from them some valuable suggestions. The book is marked throughout by good sense, and its dominating principle is the importance, to both parents and children, of a constant regard for justice in the exercise of control over the young. As to some of the specific rules and maxims here laid down, opinions may differ; but these are insignificant matters. Such a book as this should find a place in every house where young children are growing up.

Mr. Hamblen Sears's 'Governments of To-Day' (Meadville: Chautauqua-Century Press) is offered as "an outline for the use of newspaper readers." This class has certainly never been by implication credited with a denser ignorance than by Mr. Sears, and one example shall confirm our statement. On page 396, treating of the riots against the abolitionists, we are told that "in Pennsylvania a man named Hall of Philadelphia was burned, and another named Lovejoy in Illinois." What was burnt was the building known as "Pennsylvania Hall" in Philadelphia, in 1838, and Lovejoy's printing-office in Alton, in defence of which he was shot down at Alton in 1837. The sooner the Chautauqua directors "fill up" this "outline" with the Russian censor's caviare, the better for their reputation.

Armand Colin & Cie., Paris, are cultivating that cosmopolitanism in literature for which we have lately been taught to be especially thankful to Rousseau. Their English works newly taken over into French include a translation of Morley's 'Critical Essays' and Emerson's 'Representative Men' ('Les Sur-Humains'), by Georges Art and Jean Izoulet respectively, the latter having performed a similar service for Carlyle's 'Heroes.'

A pretty compliment has been paid to our countryman, Mr. Thomas A. Janvier. From "Avignoun" (J. Roumanille) there comes to us a translation of his 'Saint Antonio of the Gardens' into Provençal by Miss Mary Girard, Queen of the Félibres, prefaced with a "bon astru," or godspeed, from Frédéric Mistral. Mr. Janvier is an honorary member of the Félibrige. The English faces the Provençal, and, as page is made to offset page exactly, it is noticeable that the Provençal version is often more condensed than the original.

Although Chantilly and all its treasures are, after the demise of its munificent owner, to become the property of the French Academy, and thus, in a measure, of the public, few collections are at present so difficult of access. Great interest attaches, therefore, to the splendid quarto just published, which, bulky though it is, catalogues only the non-French pictures belonging to the Duc d'Aumale ('La Peinture à Chantilly, Écoles Étrangères,' by F. A. Gruyer. Paris: Plon, Nourrit & Cie.). The text need not occupy us, as, apart from merely iconographic information and indications of size, vehicle, etc., it is positively without interest or value. What gives a real importance to this heavy tome is its forty magnificent heliogravures, which reproduce many of the most precious pictures. A few of these may here be mentioned: two Raphaels, which are both early, the tiny "Three Graces" being one of his very first achievements, while Timoteo Viti was still guiding his boyish hand; a fascinating profile of a young woman with the attributes of Cleopatra, painted by Pier di Cosimo, which bears the following inscription, "Simonetta Ianvensis Vespvccia," the civil name of the "Bella Simonetta"; a "St. Francis Wedding Poverty, Humility, and Chastity," which has the acutely tender feeling and decorative beauty of Pietro di Sano of Siena; a long cassone panel representing the Story of Esther, the masterpiece of some nameless great Florentine akin to Botticelli; a number of reproductions of pictures attributed to Van Eyck, Roger van der Weyde, Dierick Bouts, and Memling. Even the English school is represented by some fine Sir Joshuas.

A book by M. Paul Stapfer is always welcome; his 'La Famille and les Amis de Montaigne' (Paris: Hachette) as much as any of its predecessors. A delightful subject is here ably treated. Montaigne's parents and close friends, La Boétie, Mlle. Gournay, De Brach, Charron, and of course the captivating essayist himself, are the very living personages about whom M. Stapfer chats—for his book, he expressly states, is a series of "causeries," as is fitting, in view of the real hero of it.

Great men have come out of Brittany—Chateaubriand and Renan will suffice as samples—and the Breton race has literary aptitudes and an army of literary men, not as great as the two named above, yet worthy to have found a biographer in M. Joseph Rousse, who, in 'La Poésie bretonne au 19e siècle' (Paris: Lethielleux), has related their deeds in the field of verse. The book is not particularly well written; the portraits are of the newspaper class, and the subject, capable of being made very interesting, does not become so in the author's hands; but altogether we have a useful work of reference.

Under the guise of a novel, with the thinnest thread of a story, M.R. de Bonnières gives us, in 'Lord Hyland' (Paris: Ollendorff), an attractive account of the humanizing and broadening of a fanatical English nobleman who has a mania for converting heathens, whether Christian or pagan. There is much boldness in the treatment of the theme, which involves questions that cause even now considerable discussion, usually acrimonious; but it would be hard indeed to take offence if the book is read without prejudice. It is distinctly interesting in itself and as indicative of the growing trend of thought in French literary circles.

Dahms's 'Das Litterarische Berlin' is a rather peculiar book. It gives the history of every newspaper and periodical in the city and in the suburbs, with such minute items regarding each as policy, contents, frequency of issue, names and addresses of the editors, rates for subscriptions and advertisements, office hours of the editors. In the majority of instances portraits of the editor-in-chief and frequently of many of his associates are exhibited. There are numerous articles specially prepared by men prominent in various kinds of newspaper work, such as criticism of the theatre, of music, of the Government; the critic's place in the theatre, in the art exhibitions, in the music hall, and in the Board of Trade; together with an article on the press ball. These articles are accompanied by good illustrations, the one accompanying the description of the ball being large enough to contain about one hundred portraits of Berlin society leaders. The whole book is admirably prepared and contains a large amount of well-classified knowledge.

Mr. John Rae communicates to the London *Athenæum* a hitherto unpublished letter from

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Adam Smith to the Duke de La Rochefoucauld, written in 1785, and preserved in the public library of Mantes. The letter was in part occasioned by a promise on the part of Smith, subsequently fulfilled, to correct in a new edition of his 'Theory of Moral Sentiments' an injustice committed by him in that work, when he associated the distinguished ancestor of his correspondent, the author of the 'Maxims,' in the same condemnation with Mandeville. It appears, also, in answer to an inquiry of the Duke's for letters from Turgot, that, in spite of their friendship, Turgot and Smith had had no correspondence. Smith mentions incidentally the subjects of the two works upon which he was engaged during the later years of his life and which he had destroyed shortly before he died. One was "a sort of Philosophical History of all the different branches of Literature, of Philosophy, Poetry, and Eloquence." The other was "a sort of Theory and History of Law and Government." The materials of both, he says, were in great part collected, and to some extent put in tolerable order. But, he continues, "the indolence of old age, tho' I struggle violently against it, I feel coming fast upon me, and whether I shall ever be able to finish either is extremely uncertain." Posterity might perhaps dispense with the former of these treatises, but even in incomplete form the latter would have been an inestimable legacy.

An admirable scheme for enabling the public which buys books to make its choice with intelligence (and at the same time for increasing, no doubt, largely the number of books which it makes up its mind to buy) has lately been put in operation in London. The Library Bureau has opened a Publishers' Central Showroom, to which the principal English publishers will send all of their publications for inspection. No books will be sold at the showroom, and no orders taken—a regulation which is obviously essential to giving the proper character to the undertaking.

A very useful work has been issued by the Library Bureau (Boston) in 'A List of Books for Girls and Women and their Clubs,' put together by various different writers who are more or less authoritative in their different fields. The books are for the most part such as would be equally interesting for men as well, but its special adaptation to women is emphasized by the large number of titles given under the heads of Domestic Economy, Home Sanitation, and Women's Clubs. The text-books under the head Education are apparently chosen upon no principle whatever. Particularly valuable are Parts I. and III.; Fiction, and Art (Fine Arts by Russell Sturgis and Music by H. E. Krehbiel). The former especially is delightful reading, and one cannot but wonder that so many acute and witty things can be said about two hundred and fifty novelists without any sacrifice of sound judgment or accurate characterization. These two parts (as well as the other three) may be had separately for a very modest price, and they deserve a wide circulation.

Portugal is about to follow the example of some greater Powers, and celebrate a quatercentenary of its own. At the request of the Geographical Society of Lisbon the Government has just determined to celebrate, with much pomp, in 1897, the four-hundredth anniversary of the expedition which, on July 8, 1497, set out, under the command of Vasco da Gama, for the discovery of the route to India round the Cape of Good Hope. Few details of the celebration have as yet been settled upon, but it is expected that special expositions will be opened at Lisbon, and many scientific congresses held, to which the world will be invited.

—We have already reported the contents of the second number of the *American Historical Review* (Macmillan), and shall confine our present notice to the "Documents." The very valuable Diary of Richard Smith of New Jersey, in the Continental Congress (1775 1776), of which, by the way, the historian Bancroft had the benefit, has, for its most significant entry, under date of September 26, 1775: "Com^ee brought in a Letter to [query from?] Gen Washington, in the Course of it E Rutledge moved that the Gen. shall discharge all the Negroes as well Slaves as Freemen in his Army. he (Rutledge) was strongly supported by many of the Southern Delegates, but so powerfully opposed that he lost the Point." On January 16, 1776, "A Report passed from the Com^ee on Gen. Wash^ns Letters, ... to allow Him to reiulist the free Negroes," etc. Next in interest is a letter from Lincoln to N. J. Rockwell, in the nature of a circular to his political friends, dated Springfield, January 21, 1846: "You, perhaps, know that Gen^l Hardin and I have a contest for the Whig nomination for Congress in this District. He has had a turn; and my argument is that 'Turn about is fair play.' I shall be pleased if this strikes you as a sufficient argument." The sufficiency of this argument for what used to be called rotation in office is still recognized by the majority of Lincoln's countrymen. The holding of office is still a matter of personal aggrandizement as opposed to a public trust, the competent and faithful discharge of which should be a bar to envy or jealousy on the one hand and to insecurity on the other.

—Most timely of all is an inedited letter of John C. Calhoun's to Waddy Thompson, dated October 29, 1847. The whole of it deserves to be read and pondered in this war-crazed time, but we can make room only for the following extract, for its parallel to our present false and hypocritical situation:

"In deciding that question [how to bring the Mexican war to an end] it must not be overlooked that both parties, by large majorities, stand committed by their recorded votes, not only to the war, but [to the contention] that the war is a war of aggression on the part of the Republic of Mexico—aggression by invasion and spilling American blood on American soil; and thus committed also to the Rio Grande being the western boundary of the State of Texas. It is true that very few of either party believed that there was any just cause of war, or that the Rio Grande was the western boundary of Texas, or that the Republic of Mexico had made war on us by the invasion of our territory, or any other way; but it is equally true that, by an act of unexampled weakness (to use the mildest terms), both stand by admission on record to the very opposite of their belief. And what is worse, they have, by this act of unpar[all]eled weakness, committed large portions of both parties out of Congress to the war, as just and unavoidable on our part. . . . The fatal error of the Whigs in voting for the war has rendered them impotent, as a party, in opposition to it."

—The meeting of the Modern Language Association at New Haven during the holidays was an unusually pleasant one, the charm of the place and the cordial hospitality of the Graduates' Club and other organizations doing more to produce this effect than the general excellence of the papers read. Of the latter there were, in fact, too many; suitable discussion being impossible. The subjects treated are a fair index to the relative activity in the various departments of modern-language study in this country. Of the twoscore papers presented, nearly three-fourths pertained to manic subjects and less than one-fourth t mance. Of the twenty seven Germanic pa fully half were English, ten German, and Scandinavian, etc. A majority of the Romance papers treated of French sub Of the English papers, but two conc strictly linguistic matters: Dr. Belden's on Anglo-Saxon prepositions, and Mr. G gent's paper on the *p* in words like "warm The remaining English papers dealt wit modern period, with the exception of fiv fell in Middle-English times. It is remar that, of these, four were devoted to Cha Prof. Price of Columbia made an elab presentation of the story of Chaucer's " lus and Crysseyde"; Prof. Manly of H proved that in writing the "Squire's Chaucer was not indebted to Marco Polo; Easton of Philadelphia presented many resting features of Chaucer's versifica while Prof. Hempl of Michigan made these facts throw new light upon Chaucer's lit workmanship and the chronology of his ings. The evidence presented made it than likely that the "Palamon and A was written in the heroic couplet, and th still have a large part of it but slightly re in the "Knight's Tale." A somewhat less lastic character was given the meetings b tain papers of a more general literary f "The Conventions of the Drama," by Brander Matthews of Columbia; "Fictio College Study," by Prof. Bliss Perry of P ton; "The Comparative Study of Litera by Prof. Marsh of Harvard; "The Signifi of Pastoral Literature," by Dr. Smith University of Pennsylvania; as also by two papers on politico-social movements than on literature—for example, the pa Dr. Baker of Johns Hopkins Universi "Das junge Deutschland" in America. election of Prof. Calvin Thomas of Ann to the presidency of the association, th tinction falls for the first time to a ern man, and for the first time to a teac German. The choice is, however, regard a peculiarly happy one in that Prof. Th not only is distinguished for his famil with Germanic and Indo-European phil but is also generally regarded as foi among American students of German ture. He is at present engaged in the archives at Weimar, in the preparation edition of the second part of "Faust."

—*Minerva*, "Jahrbuch der gelehrten W continues to grow in size. The fifth vo which has just appeared (Strassburg: Trübner; New York: Lemcke & Buec contains sixty pages more than the prec one. This year the editors do honor to I educators by choosing for their frontisp portrait of V. G. Schiaparelli, director Royal Astronomical Observatory in Mila numerous respects the book is more cor than heretofore, especially in regard to rican institutions. Important additions a observable in the case of institutions of w Europe—witness the description of the F archives at Paris and of the archives of Hc The Papal institutions at Rome are for th time adequately represented. Owing difficulty in presenting to Europeans a idea of American colleges and univer quite an essay has been introduced in the part of the work, calling attention to the differences between the German syste our own. The outline of the historical lopment of our institutions, and the cla tion of them, are, on the whole, very jus

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stimation of the editors of *Minerva*, the wing are entitled to the name of univer- Harvard, Johns Hopkins, Columbia, Yale, ell, Chicago, Michigan; others likely to ne worthy of the name after a few more s of development are Wisconsin, Minne- Colorado, California. The University of State of New York is carefully distin- ied from all the others, and is compared to University of France. It is somewhat ising, however, that the University of ana and Washington University in St. s are the only ones added to last year's The book is divided into four parts: (1) assification of institutions according to geographical location; (2) an alphabetical of institutions, with a description of each a list of faculties; (3) an alphabetical list structors, with a reference to the place e the institution with which each is con- d is described. The number of students ding the great universities is thus set : Paris 11,010 (10,643), figures in parenthe- eing for the previous year; Berlin 8,652 3), Vienna 6,714 (4,856), Madrid 5,829 7), Munich 3,561 (3,408), Leipzig 2,957 (3,067), ard 3,290 (3,156), Michigan 2,772 (2,695), 2,350 (2,202), Cornell 1,686 (1,801), Chicago (878). These figures are probably for '95, although the book states that they are he winter term 1893-'94—exactly the same ment that stands at the head of the list for receding year.

The time has come to make what we may a topographical survey of painting in pe, at least as far as the older schools are erned. Public galleries have already gar- l in most of the masterpieces, and the pictures of note still remaining in private s are fairly well known and readily cata- ed. At the same time, good reproduction become so cheap that such a survey as we k of can afford, with but slight addition to elling price, to include fairly adequate il- ations after at least the most important ures. An undertaking of the kind we just outlined has been begun by MM. La tre and Richtenberger in 'La Peinture Europe' (Paris: Quantin). The first two nes of the series, dealing with the Louvre vith Florence, left much to be desired in way of accuracy of statement and ac- uaintance with the latest research. We are, ever, happy to give unstinted praise to the volume, just published, which deals the paintings in public and private col- ons, churches, and other lay and secular lations in Belgium. Perhaps the easiest to convey an idea of the nature of the ne will be to name the more important of works reproduced. At Brussels: Dierick s's "Penitence of Otto," Petrus Cristus's scent from the Cross," Van Eyck's "Adam Eve," Quentin Matsys's "Story of St. ," a "Crucifixion" and the "Portrait of ara Vlaenderberch," by Memling, Pati- "Rest in the Flight," and Roger van der den's "Charles the Bold." From Lou- we have reproductions of Bouts's "Mar- om of St. Erasmus"; from Antwerp, An- lo da Messina's "Crucifixion," Titian's rkable early picture containing the por- of Pope Alexander VI., Jehan Fouquet's donna," Mabuse's "Four Marys," Quen- latsys's "Entombment," Memling's "Por- of a Canon," little "Madonna," and rist and the Angels," and Roger van der den's "Seven Sacraments"; from Ghent, Eyck's "Adoration of the Mystic Lamb"; Bruges, the shutters of Gerhard David's "Baptism" and his "Cambyses and Sisamnus," and of course several of the Memlings in the Hospital. We scarcely need add that the best of Rubens and of other later masters is also reproduced.

—A young savant, M. Abel Lefranc, secretary of the Collège de France, has come upon a manuscript in the Bibliothèque Nationale which contains the whole of the later work in every kind of Marguerite of Navarre. If anything might be taken as certain, it would seem to be that, after so many learned researches and so many careful studies, both in regard of Marguerite herself and of her time, our knowledge of her writings was complete. And yet we now find that she left behind her in poems, dramas, dialogues, "chansons spirituelles," letters, and light poetry, about twelve thousand unpublished verses. By what strange chance such a mass of literature has lain hid, and by what train of circumstances the manuscript which contains it has escaped the researches of the learned during the hundred years that it has lain in the Bibliothèque Nationale, can hardly be explained. M. Abel Lefranc is himself as much astonished at this as anybody, and as little able to clear up the problem. Strangest of all, the title of the manuscript is duly inscribed in the catalogue, 'Les Dernières Oeuvres de la Reine de Navarre, lesquelles n'ont pas encore esté imprimées.' The volume has the elegant and characteristic covering of the celebrated collection of the learned Bouhier (1673-1746), *président à mortier* of the Parlement of Dijon, and member of the Academy—a collection which was broken up at the time of the Revolution and divided among many public libraries. M. Abel Lefranc happened to pick up the manuscript by the merest chance at the Bibliothèque Nationale, and opened it, and the discovery was made. In the *Figaro* of December 27, 1895, he states that several of the compositions show erasures and interlineations which greatly add to the difficulty of deciphering. The necessity of these appears from what is told us by Brantôme of the literary habits of the Queen. He says that she most often either dictated or wrote in her litter, as she went on journeys. There are two dramatic compositions in the collection, ten letters in verse to Marguerite's daughter, Jeanne d'Albret, with three of that princess's answers, dialogues and lyric pieces, and two long poems, "Le Navire" and "Les Prisons," the latter being of about five thousand verses, and the most extended work of the royal poet. It appears evident that all these were written at the same period of Marguerite's life, that is to say, during its last four or five years. The whole of the new-found works will be published as soon as may be, under the auspices of the Société d'histoire littéraire de la France.

—An important monograph, by Mr. Samuel Garman, of 'The Cyprinodonts' of the entire earth has been published as one of the "Memoirs of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy" (vol. xix., No. 1). The so called Cyprinodonts constitute a family of fishes related to the pikes; the species about New York are generally called killifishes and mummichogs. All are of small size, and some among the smallest of fishes; the largest are the "four-eyes" of tropical America. Most have the sexes externally well differentiated and are viviparous. The sexes of the four-eyes (*Anableps*) are "rights and lefts," that is, "a dextral male pairs with a sinistral female," or vice versa. It is noteworthy that while, in the species with plain or moderately bright males, the females are larger—often very much larger—as among fishes generally, in one genus (*Mollienisia*), the males, which are very ornate representatives of that sex, reach larger dimensions than the females, and thus falsify a generalization extended to all teleost fishes. Mr. Garman displays an unusual acquaintance with the literature of the subject. In reviving the old name Cyprinodontes for the family, however, he will not be followed by all ichthyologists. He has shown that Wagner was the first to distinguish the family, but he proceeds to state that Wagner's name "*Cyprinoïdae* is incorrectly written; etymologically corrected, it is identical with *Cyprinidæ*." *Cyprinoïdae*, however, is what was intended by Wagner, and was given because he wanted to imply likeness, but not pertinence, to the Cyprinids: *Cyprinoïdae* is a compound with εἶδος, 'form'; *Cyprinidæ* with -idae, the patronymic suffix. Ichthyologists will certainly be greatly helped by the very numerous references to the widely scattered literature brought together in Mr. Garman's historical survey and synonyms of the groups and species. About 134 species are recognized and distributed among 32 genera.

WHITE'S MONEY AND BANKING.

Money and Banking, Illustrated by American History. By Horace White. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1895. Pp. 488.

Mr. White's book is not a systematic treatise on money and banking, and does not aim to give an elaborate account of theories, or a refined criticism of conflicting views. Apart from a few short chapters, the exposition of principles has the appearance of being brought in incidentally, as though suggested by the events of the story, rather than as constituting the central object of the work. This mode of treatment will not be found fully satisfactory by the economic student who may go to this book with a view to finding a compact body of doctrine; but it has evidently been adopted with a view to attracting the general reader, unaccustomed to economic reasoning, but intelligently interested in those questions of currency and banking which are now of such predominating interest in our national affairs.

The keynote of the book is given in the following passage in the preface:

"It is the aim of this work to recall attention to first principles. For this purpose it has been deemed best to begin at the beginning of civilized life on this continent, and to treat the subject historically. The science of money is much in need of something to enliven it. If anything can make it attractive, it must be the story of the struggles of our ancestors with the same problems that vex us. The reader will find an abundance of these in the following pages. Indeed, a complete and correct theory of money might be constructed from events and experiences that have taken place on the American continent, even if we had no other sources of knowledge. This may be said of the science of banking also. All the wisdom and all the folly of the ages, as to these two related subjects, have been exploited on our shores within the space of less than three hundred years."

There are, in fact, few who will not be astonished at the abundance of illustration which our financial history, as here unfolded, furnishes of almost every conceivable point connected with money and banking. We are certainly, for instance, not in the habit of thinking of old Peter Stuyvesant as a well of wisdom from which we may profitably recommend some of our free-coinage friends to draw in-

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struction. Yet here we find him, a quarter of a millennium ago, grappling manfully with the double-standard question on Manhattan Island. Beaver-skins and wampum were used as currency, as well as metallic money, and the little colony got hot over the question whether beaver should be rated at six florins or eight to the skin, and wampum at eight beads to the stiver or ten But Stuyvesant declared that it was immaterial whether the legal rate was eight for a stiver or ten, "because the dealer marks, holds, or sells his goods according to the abundance of wampum and the price he has to give for beavers."

Only a small portion of the book, however, is occupied with the curious details of the history of wampum, beaver, and tobacco money, instructive as these are; and we soon come to the doleful history of the paper currencies of the separate colonies and of the Continental Congress. Of course, every one knows how these paper substitutes for money went rapidly down-hill, and how each new issue made confusion worse confounded. The phrase "not worth a Continental" still survives to remind the descendants of the men of the Revolution how worthless the currency of the united colonies became. But this general impression is apt to be a shadowy one; and the vivid and interesting detailed account in this book will come, after all, more or less with the force of a revelation to most readers. Not only are we given the startling figures which tell the story of the depreciation in the paper money of one after another of the colonies, and in the Continental currency; but we are made to realize what desperate and futile expedients were resorted to in the attempt to avert the inevitable consequences of financial folly. On the first head, we are told, for instance, that "in 1763 the value of the New Hampshire shilling was a little less than a half-penny; in 1771 it vanished altogether. Rhode Island old-tenor bills in 1770 were worth 26 for 1." It is interesting, too, to learn that "the bills of the middle colonies were kept within reasonable bounds—a result due mainly to the stubbornness of their Governors." Though Mr. White draws no parallel here, not a few readers will be reminded of a similar service rendered by executive firmness nearer to our own day. Of Continental money the amount issued, between 1775 and 1779, was two hundred and forty-two million dollars, and "in 1781 the whole mass became worthless." An act of the United States Congress passed in 1790 provided for the funding of the bills in 6 per cent. bonds "at the rate of one hundred dollars in the said bills for one dollar in specie!" Only $7,000,000 was presented in response to this not very tempting offer.

As regards the means resorted to by the governments of the separate colonies, and by the Continental Congress, to make water run uphill, the account of them makes picturesque, even if melancholy, reading. We have, as a matter of course, legal-tender acts, struggles with the home Government over their validity, repudiation (more or less complete) of old issues, emission of new bills giving rise to such distinctions as old tenor, middle tenor, new tenor first, and new tenor second; but we have, in addition, efforts to force the currency of these precious bills on those who had property for sale, at the value which the legislative fiat put upon them.

"We find in nearly all the colonies severe penalties on those who charged more for their goods, lands, or services in bills of credit than in hard money. In some cases the penalty was a fine, in others imprisonment, in others confiscation of the property offered. There is no recorded instance in colonial history where the penalties had any effect to reduce the prices of property, or to equalize paper prices and silver prices, although there are many cases where individuals were outrageously robbed."

The Continental Congress resorted to impressment, on a large scale, to procure army supplies, at arbitrary prices, for the almost worthless paper money; and finally, in 1779, against the protest of Robert Morris, the Superintendent of Finance, it endeavored to cut the knot of the currency difficulty, so far as providing for the army was concerned, by resorting to the plan of raising, from the several States, "specific supplies" for the army, *i. e.*, avoiding the intervention of money altogether by making requisitions for beef, pork, and so forth. The result was an experimental demonstration of the necessity of money as part of the machinery of civilized life. "Instantly there was a tangle of the public accounts which nobody could unravel. In some cases, flour collected for the army was not forwarded because there was no money to pay teamsters. It remained at the place of collection till it was spoiled. Other consignments, which were actually sent, arrived too early or too late, and were left on the ground exposed to the weather." The whole experiment was a dismal failure. In August, 1780, Washington, writing to Congress, said: "The present mode of obtaining supplies is the most uncertain, expensive, and injurious that could be devised." Mr. White's account of the history of colonial and Continental money is interspersed with an abundance of instructive comment and discussion. In concluding his chapter on Continental money, he refers to the "paper-money debauchery" of several of the separate States after the Revolutionary war, and quotes from Judge Story the following declaration as to the Revolutionary and post-Revolutionary legal-tender laws: "They entailed the most enormous evils on the country, and introduced a system of fraud, chicanery, and profligacy which destroyed all private confidence and all industry and enterprise."

The next subject taken up is the paper-money legislation of the Civil War. Naturally, the prevailing note here is one of deep regret that the experience of our fathers did not avail to keep us away from the maelstrom of irredeemable paper money. Mr. White points out with great effectiveness, both by the examples of history and by intrinsic considerations, that the notion of the necessity of irredeemable paper for the carrying on of wars is a delusion. Referring to the fact that in many wars quite as trying to the resources of the countries concerned as was our Civil War, and notably in the wars of France under the first Napoleon, specie payments were not suspended, he remarks: "Yet sane people talk as though there had never been a war, from the siege of Troy till now, without the use of depreciated paper, whereas this is only a modern device of slovenly financiers." And he avails himself of the assertion made in several reports by Mr. Memminger, the Confederate Secretary of the Treasury, "that it was impossible to carry on a modern war by means of taxes alone," to point out the fallacy of this view, and to explain how the issue of paper money merely veils the true nature of the operation of taxation, and distributes the cost of the war among the people, only not according to a sound or equitable system. "Every country," says Mr. White, "pays the cost of a war at the time of the war" (of course, money b rowed from abroad is here left out of the count); and he continues as follows:

"The Southern Confederacy presents easy illustration of this maxim, because it for the most part isolated, having little c munication with the outer world, and beca all of its debts were obliterated at the en the war. Obviously somebody paid the c It was not paid by foreigners (except the fling sum of $15,000,000 borrowed abroad). did it fall from the moon. There being nob else to pay it, the people of the Confeder must have paid it, and must have paid it d ing the time of the war and not a mon later. To levy taxes sufficient to pay the wh of each year's expenses within the year wo not have made the burden any greater tha actually was. The Confederacy, by follow Mr. Memminger's conception that taxes to interest on loans would be sufficient, did not rid of heavier ones. It only took them i different way."

This quotation affords an illustration of way in which, throughout the book, dis sions of a general character are brought i such points as the current of the narra suggests; a method which will doubtless ca them to be read by very many to whom tematic economic exposition is insupporta dreary. In this particular instance one p is overlooked as regards the general the though it does not apply to the case of Confederacy. If, during a war, paper mo were issued only in such quantity as not to depreciated, and if this paper money were deemed after the war, its issue would h acted as a *bona-fide* loan, and would have rated to defer payment of the correspond part of the cost of the war until after its clusion. Of course, it would have done *through the expulsion of a correspond* amount of gold, which would have been free for purchases abroad (in so far as it was hoarded).

We have perhaps devoted too much spac giving an idea of the contents of that por of the book which relates to money; and of this portion we have not indicated the p which deal with the gold and silver standa (including a long account of the successive ternational congresses which have strugg with the question of silver), nor the b chapters relating to the currency of fore countries. The history of our coinage legi tion and of our actual experience in regar gold and silver money is of especial pertine to current questions. Thus, the circumstan bearing on the well-known fact that we h had the single gold standard *de facto*, tho *not de jure*, ever since 1834, are of decided i rest just now. The story of how France ca to the gold standard is instructively t Some interesting points are mentioned bear on the question of the effects, in India, of fall of silver; the most striking being the f that rice, the chief food-product of Bengal, "more than doubled in price since the ru began to fall." The chapter on "the crim 1873" is conclusive on a matter which should be glad to think was no longer likel be heard about, but which, at all events, is from being the burning question it seemed some in the palmy days of Jones and Stew and "Coin." The concluding chapter of part of the book devoted to money deals w our present financial situation, points out v and to what extent the Government keeps various other dollars at par with the gold lar, shows the evils of fiat money, explains inelasticity of a Treasury currency, owing the necessary non-possession by the Treas of the machinery of banking, and touches other matters of present-day interest, inc

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ing an account of how the contract made with the Morgan syndicate last February saved our monetary system. It closes with some discussion of the Supreme Court decisions in the legal-tender cases.

The second half of the book is devoted to banking. With this, though perhaps as interesting and certainly as important as the first half, we shall have to deal much more briefly. It is less easy here to pick out salient points and to convey, in brief space, an idea of the matters dealt with. The first chapter gives a short statement of the functions of a bank, the second describes the operation of the clearing-house, and the remaining seventeen chapters follow, for the most part, historical lines in the treatment of the subject. The history of the two Banks of the United States is full of interest and instruction, and the personal and political side of the struggle between Andrew Jackson and the second Bank is vividly presented. Successive chapters deal with the various classes of State banks; and their rise and fall, as well as the legislation affecting them, is made the occasion for impressing upon the reader the general principles which underlie the operation of banking. Thus, we have, in the chapter on "Some Notable Banks," a full account of the development of the Wisconsin Marine and Fire Insurance Company (started by the Scotchman, George Smith) into the great issuer of paper money for the Northwest; and, in this somewhat unexpected place, we find, under the head "Advantages of 'George Smith's Money,'" perhaps a fuller explanation of the nature and benefits of an elastic banking currency than anywhere else. The history of ante-bellum banking in the United States contains much in the way of example as well as of warning; and if the story of "wild-cat" banking presents a state of things almost incredibly bad, the history of the Suffolk banking system of Massachusetts, the Bank of South Carolina, the Bank of Indiana, and many others, shows how safe and beneficent a banking system is when based on sound principles.

After a chapter on the national-bank system come the three final chapters of the book, which again deal with general matters, the first being devoted to "The Quantity Theory," the second to "The Mechanism of Exchange," and the third to a number of points related to banking problems of to-day. Mr. White emphasizes everywhere the fact that credit is the thing with which banks are essentially concerned. A passage which occurs in the chapter on the mechanism of exchange is worth quoting as a specimen of the author's style. Referring to Mr. Hepburn's definition of the discount of commercial paper as "the swapping of well-known credit for less known credit," he says:

> "The banker, if he understands his trade, enables the most deserving persons in the community to get possession of the tools and materials of industry without the use of money. The most deserving persons, in the commercial sense, are those who can make the most profitable use of tools and materials, and who are believed to be honest. By swapping its well-known credit for their less-known credit, the bank performs a service to society by economizing tools and materials. Anything which puts these things into the right hands and keeps them out of the wrong hands is a gain to the world. The continued existence of a bank is conclusive and incontestable proof that it is doing this thing, for if it were not, its own losses and expenses would soon eat it up."

Mr. White's book is not devoted to the propagation of any special views, but is designed to enlighten readers of ordinary intelligence in regard to the history and the essential principles of money and banking. In its theoretical arguments and its statements of doctrine, while they are not always hedged about with such caution and particularity as would be expected in an economic text-book, there is rarely anything that we can find fault with; and there is a refreshing vigor and frequently even pungency in the expression, which is not often met with in books on this class of subjects. The treatment of the "quantity theory" is not to our mind satisfactory; it fails in that highest requirement of controversial writing, the stating of the doctrine you oppose in the best form of which it is capable. Moreover, Mr. White's views, as expressed in this chapter, seem to be contradicted by his own remarks on page 197, touching the fall in the value of greenbacks between 1874 and 1875, of which he says "the explanation is that there was a greater demand for instruments of exchange in the former year than in the latter. Consequently they would buy more goods per dollar and therefore more gold."

Nothing could be more timely than this book. It ought to have the effect of making thousands of intelligent persons who are interested in the burning financial questions of the day, but who feel that they see them "through a glass, darkly," take the trouble to equip themselves with an understanding of the problem and of its history.

GROSVENOR'S CONSTANTINOPLE.

Constantinople. By Edwin O. Grosvenor. 2 vols., illustrated. Boston: Roberts Bros. 1895.

Mr. Grosvenor, now professor of European history at Amherst, was for many years professor of history at Robert College, Constantinople. He improved the opportunities there afforded for the study of the history of the antiquities of that city, and these two large volumes are the result of his work and investigations. In his preface he acknowledges his indebtedness to various "distinguished gentlemen," so many and so distinguished that the list sounds very much like a "recapitulation of glittering names," to use his own words. But the two to whom he considers himself most of all indebted are Alexander G. Paspatis and Gen. Lew Wallace. The latter, whom Prof. Grosvenor designates as "the foremost writer of America," furnishes a commendatory introduction to the work.

Prof. Grosvenor's style has a somewhat Byzantine tinge, which may be due to his long and careful study of Byzantine writers, the evidence of which one finds on every page of these volumes. For he is no mere second-hand student, but one who has read the tedious tomes of the little-known Greek writers of the Byzantine Empire. Moreover, he is a member of the Hellenic Philologic Syllogos and the Society of Mediæval Researches of Constantinople, as well as of the Syllogos of Parnassos of Athens. Through his membership in these societies he has been for many years in close contact with every one in Constantinople who is interested in or has studied the ancient or mediæval history of that city, and has thus been able to draw, as it were, upon a common stock of information. Whoever in Constantinople finds an object of interest or discovers new facts, reads a paper at the Syllogos, and, in conveying his own new information, obtains in return the information and the criticisms of scholars interested like himself in the same researches. The language of the Syllogos and its publications is naturally Greek, for, with the exception of a very few Englishmen and Americans, it is almost exclusively the Greeks who are interested in the study of the former history of Constantinople.

But it is not merely that Prof. Grosvenor has been able to draw on the accumulated information of all those who are interested in the antiquities of Constantinople; in the many years of his residence he appears to have visited every church, every mosque, every cistern, and to have explored every region of the city for remains of ancient Constantinople or Byzantium, and in these explorations he has made discoveries and formed opinions of his own which constitute an original contribution. Now and then, however, he seems to propound a theory or opinion as though it were a well-attested and generally accepted fact. For instance, on the capitals of the three-tiered columns which support the roof of Bin Bir Derek cistern there are a number of monograms, some of them repeated several times, some of them upside down and some of them wrong-side foremost. Prof. Grosvenor assumes that these are monograms of senators of the time of Constantine, and that Philoxenos, who, we are told, gave this cistern to the city, did not himself bear the entire cost, but that, the undertaking being too great for any one man to accomplish, various senators contributed in larger or smaller amounts, the monogram of each contributor being inscribed on one or more capitals, in proportion to the amount of his contribution. The rude or careless workmen who did the stone-cutting cut these monograms in the capitals in any fashion, frequently upside down and wrong-side foremost. So far as we are aware, Prof. Grosvenor has no other ground for this hypothesis than the fact that there are monograms of various individuals on the capitals. History or tradition ascribes the cistern to Philoxenos only. Now, however plausible his theory, Prof. Grosvenor has no right to state it as a fact on such evidence as this. He makes no mention, by the way, of the cross on a ball which is to be found on at least two of the columns in the Bin Bir Derek cistern, and which evidently belongs to the period of Justinian. In his description of another cistern, Yeri Batan Serai, Prof. Grosvenor asserts as a fact that "it still serves its original purpose, supplying water from the aqueduct of Valens in as copious measure as of old." This may be true, but, inasmuch as other authorities declare that the source of supply is unknown, it is regrettable that Prof. Grosvenor does not inform us definitely of the source of his information.

The plan of the book seems to be to present a panoramic view of Constantinople in all the epochs of its existence. This is, perhaps, best illustrated in the chapter on the Hippodrome, which was first published some five years ago in separate form as a pamphlet. In this, after restoring the Hippodrome from its ruins, Prof. Grosvenor endeavors to make it live by bringing before the mind's eye picture after picture of stirring events which have occurred there: the revolt of the Nika; the extraordinary history of the famous or infamous Theodora, wife of Justinian, who, making her first appearance as the orphan of the deceased keeper of the bears of the faction of the Green, a pitiable little child, vainly begging at her mother's bidding from the patrons of the faction which had employed her father, becomes at last the real ruler of the world, and wreaks her vengeance in the same place on those who then scorned and insulted her. Again, we have the picture of Basil, the groom, be-

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striding and controlling the wild Arabian steed which no one else could manage, and by his courage and dexterity so approving himself to Emperor and people that he finally, in his turn, ascends the imperial throne. No panorama of any other spot can be stranger or more picturesque than this panorama of the Hippodrome. The book is not a guide-book, however, and he who wishes to know the chronological order of events and the precise history of each occurrence must look elsewhere. No authorities are cited. The reader must accept Prof. Grosvenor's word; and if he doubt that, he will find it an exceedingly difficult matter to check the accuracy of the information given. Perhaps for the purpose which Prof. Grosvenor had in mind this method is the best, provided that the author is always sufficiently careful regarding his facts. After reading the chapter on the Hippodrome, for example, one has a very vivid impression both of the general life of the Hippodrome, and also of the immense part which the Hippodrome played in the history of Constantinople. One can even restore fairly well the general appearance of the enormous structure.

In another chapter we are taken up and down the Golden Horn, and then up and down the Bosphorus, going on one side and returning on the other, and completing our trip at the Princes' Islands. As we come to each village we are told by our cicerone of the most striking events connected with that village, of the part it played in Byzantine, and sometimes in Turkish, history, and of the great buildings which stood or still stand there. Sometimes the stories are romantic, sometimes gruesome. On the island of Proti, one of the Princes' Islands, where so many princes and princesses, mutilated or with shorn heads, were cast into monastic cells, after being torn from their thrones by palace conspiracies, we meet among others the entire family of the Emperor Leo V. "A leathern sack lying at the Empress's feet contained the headless remains of her husband Leo. . . . The roughly shaven head of the Empress Theodosia testified to the violence with which, in the euphemistic language of the Byzantines, she had just been made 'a citizeness of heaven, wearing the raiment of the angels,' or, in other words, a black-robed nun. At her side cowered her four grown-up sons in the agony of a just-performed and nameless mutilation." Eight years before, this same Leo, the Armenian, had turned Michael I., his wife, and his children, into monks and nuns on that same island. Through such pictures as this with which these pages abound, we obtain a vivid conception of the intrigues and vicissitudes of the Byzantine court.

Having explored the shores of the Golden Horn and the Bosphorus, we are next taken through all parts of ancient Constantinople itself—that is, the modern Stambul. At each bath, each forum, each palace, each church, each cistern, each prison, and each antiquity, we are told some story of its founder, its restorer, its destroyer, or of those who have in any way connected themselves with its history.

The second volume is devoted almost entirely to the churches, mosques, and *turbehs*. The section dealing with the churches is designated "Still Existing Antiquities," and begins in the first volume. Besides Sancta Sophia, the churches which receive most minute and affectionate mention are "Kutchouk Aya Sophia, the ancient Church of Sts. Sergius and Bacchus," built by the Emperor Justinian before he ascended the imperial throne, in 527 A.D.; and the "Kachrieh Djami, the Church of Chora." The former of these does not receive from the ordinary visitor to Constantinople the attention which it deserves. As Prof. Grosvenor says:

"No other building in Constantinople has exerted equal influence in subsequent Byzantine church architecture. The towering Sancta Sophia, acme of Byzantine attainment, has served as a model for almost every Moslem mosque, whatever its proportions, which has been erected since the conquest. Apparently the Christians shrank from imitation of Sancta Sophia, their proudest architectural achievement, but the Church of Sergius and Bacchus has been the honored pattern, copied with greater or less fidelity in every Orthodox sanctuary of the East."

Prof. Grosvenor is the first to point out, we believe, the meaning of an apparent irregularity in the architecture of the southern side of this church, and to show that the private entrance to the imperial palace of Justinian was at that point. "The clear cut monograms of Justinian and Theodora" are still visible on the capitals of the columns in this hitherto unexplained niche on the southern side. The latter of these two churches, the "Kachrieh Djami," although in a much more out-of-the-way situation, is better known to the ordinary visitor on account of the beautiful mosaics which are still to be seen there. It is called by the guides the "Mosaic Mosque." Prof. Grosvenor gives us welcome illustrations of all the better preserved of these mosaics.

As one reads the account of the ancient Christian churches, now all of them mosques, except the Church of "the Theotokos, the Mouchliotissa," and Saint Irene, which is a museum of arms, one realizes that the Moslems, after conquering Constantinople, did not treat the Christian religion with that moderation and liberality which some apologists pretend. It is true that all of the churches were not converted into mosques at once, but, little by little, the covetous conqueror wrenched them from the hands of his powerless Christian subjects. In describing "Fetihieh Djami, the Church of Pammakaristos," Prof. Grosvenor tells of the *fetva*, or religious decision of the Sheik-ul-Islam, in 1530, almost eighty years after the conquest, declaring that "in a city won for Islam by the sword, the Christians had no right to any religious property whatsoever," and of the method by which, through bribery and indirection, this *fetva* was circumvented by the Patriarch Jeremiah I. and the Grand Vizier, Ibrahim Pasha. Nevertheless, in 1586, the Patriarch was ousted from this church also and the church itself converted into a mosque by Sultan Murad III., after the Christians had already been compelled to remove the cross from the dome by Sultan Suleiman, in 1547.

But while Prof. Grosvenor thus points out incidentally the oppression which the Christians have undergone in Constantinople at the hands of their Turkish conquerors, he, with all modern writers, shows that the half-century of Latin rule, 1204 to 1261, was more destructive of the antiquities of Constantinople than the four and a half centuries during which the Turks have governed the city, and that the treatment of the conquered Greeks by the Venetians and Franks at the capture of the city in 1204 was more brutal, in view of the circumstances, than their treatment at the capture of the city by the Turks in 1453. He thus shows what were the grounds of the bitterness which, from the Latin conquest onward, the Greeks have felt towards Rome, and also how extreme that bitterness became, so that, when the choice was between Latins and Turks, there were many, if not the majority, who preferred the latter. The pathetic attempt of Constantine XIII. to secure assistance from the west by submission to the Pope alienated a portion of his own subjects, while it brought him no assistance from without. In the section on "Zeïrek Djami, the Church of Pantokrator," Prof. Grosvenor tells us that when, on the 12th of December, 1452, Constantine "proclaimed the ecclesiastical union of the Orthodox Eastern Church with the Church of Rome, monks and nuns crowded here before the cell of Gennadios, imploring his advice," and then at his instigation "anathematized the union and all who favored it. After that event Constantine could no longer count upon the support of his own subjects in resistance to the Ottomans." Six months later, when the Turks had captured the city, Gennadios was made Patriarch.

Outside of the Church of Saint Irene, within the iron railing, are several great sarcophagi. One of these, of porphyry, is, Prof. Grosvenor tells us,

"of all sarcophagi cut from a single block, the vastest in the world. Its inner cavity or receptacle is eight feet nine inches long, four feet one inch wide, and three feet eleven and one-quarter inches deep. Hence it was evidently designed for the reception, not of one coffin, but of two, one resting upon the other. Not a single monogram or character of any sort breaks the sphinx-like plainness of its inner or outer surface. A chain of collateral evidence, which it is impossible to doubt, demonstrates that this sarcophagus was the sepulchral chamber wherein the coffins of Constantine the Great and of his mother Saint Helena, removed from her earlier tomb at Rome, were placed together in filial and maternal nearness for their final rest."

Nevertheless, good antiquarians not only doubt such an identification, but even positively affirm that this cannot be the sarcophagus of Constantine. This is another example of Prof. Grosvenor's readiness to accept hypotheses as proved facts. We are afraid that it must be said that he is not an altogether reliable authority, although his work is by far the most satisfactory on Constantinople that has yet appeared in English.

There is one chapter which is not only unreliable, but which must seem to any reader, in view of recent events, extremely offensive, and that is chapter iv., entitled "His Imperial Majesty the Present Sultan." After speaking of his exalted rank and "that lordly dynastic line of which he is heir and representative," Prof. Grosvenor adds: "But a still sincerer respect and homage are due the present Sultan because of the intellectual and moral qualities which characterize him as a ruler and a man. . . . The new Sultan manifested unusual talents in organization and administration. There was no problem too humble or detail too minute to receive his careful consideration. Sympathetic, generous, and large-hearted, he endeavored to benefit as well as rule his people." And again: "The many political evils existent in the Ottoman state, incurable because of their very nature, are not his creation, but his inheritance. These he endeavored to mitigate and reform." Sultan Abdul Hamid has shown himself peculiarly skilful in winning sympathy through personal interviews. His method in these interviews is somewhat the same as that which he attempted in the now famous letter to Lord Salisbury. He throws himself upon the mercy of his hearer. He tells him confidentially of the great difficulties of his situation, his earnest desire to make his nation great and glorious and place it in the forefront of progress, and how impossible he has found the execution of these noble designs. He begs counsel and advice, and flatters his auditor by praising the latter's country and asking him to tell him in what manner its rulers

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have succeeded in achieving such wonderful results; and especially he makes much of the part which his auditor has played in that which has been done. He asks about railroads, and steam, and electricity, and arms; and displays considerable and minute knowledge in regard to some recent discoveries and inventions. It must be said frankly that he is insincere, and that the representations of his intentions which he makes in these interviews are falsehoods. He is, however, an able and skilful flatterer, and has completely cajoled one or two distinguished Americans, from whom Prof. Grosvenor has derived his ideas. The revelations of the Sultan's real character and of his views of government which have been made in the last few months are surely enough to enlighten the rest of the world, if not these gentlemen. Abdul Hamid has deprived his Grand Vizier and other ministers of all power, and the government of Turkey under him has been a government not of the Porte, but of the palace. The palace—that is, the Sultan—is therefore responsible for all that occurs.

In the transcription of Turkish names, Prof. Grosvenor follows somewhat unnecessarily the French system, writing "dj" for "j," "ou" for "u," etc. The book is well and profusely illustrated, but it is not sufficiently supplied with maps. The numerous references to the various regions, hills, etc., are difficult to understand and follow for lack of fuller maps. The index, also, is poor. The outward appearance of the volumes is fine. Within we are treated to heavy and luxurious paper and large open print; but unfortunately the paper is so highly glazed that the print cannot be read, especially by artificial light, without trying even the strongest and most youthful eyes.

RECENT NOVELS.

Gray Roses. By Henry Harland. London: John Lane; Boston: Roberts Bros.

Into the Highways and Hedges. By F. F. Montrésor. D. Appleton & Co.

Forward House. By William Scoville Case. Charles Scribner's Sons.

On the Point. By Nathan Haskell Dole. Boston: Joseph Knight Co.

A Truce, and Other Stories. By Mary Tappan Wright. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Doty Dontcare. By Mary Farrington Foster. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.

The Story of Babette. By Ruth McEnery Stuart. Harper & Bros.

Melting Snows. By Prince Schoenaich-Carolath. Translated into English by Margaret Symonds. Dodd, Mead & Co.

When Love is Done. By Ethel Davis. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.

The Wise Woman. By Clara Louise Burnham. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Coming of Theodora. By Eliza Orne White. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Red Star. By L. McManus. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Name This Child; A Story of Two. By Wilfrid Hugh Chesson. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Co.

ARE we not a little tired of the high-minded lamsel of the Latin Quarter who disbelieves in narriage but is devoted to her children? Or as this lady come to stay, and must we expect ier in every style at the pen of every novelist? fr. Harland now has the floor, and portrays her as well as another does. Upon the mind of the broken-spirited reviewer of fiction she palls; nor do we hold him literarily guiltless who helps to create a new lower standard in story for the prima-donna. The virtue of woman, as an adorning grace in the heroines of fiction, will soon, if the writers keep up their present pace, be relegated to that amused estimation in which we now hold the plaints of Amanda, the rounded periods of Evelina—things gone by and therefore funny. Those stories of Mr. Harland's which are without this mark of the beast are full of his own particular attraction—the light touch, the ingenuity, the delicately tantalizing swaying of the balance between poetic and realistic. "Mercedes," a story of white mice, is a graceful trifle; "The Reward of Virtue," a really powerful sketch. Mr. Harland's English needs looking after, and the Latin Quarter has driven him to quite unnecessary Gallicisms. "I must have been hoping that he would speak quand même," and "he felt a little bewildered about the mot juste," remind one of those travelling Americans who ask if one can cross the Mer de Glace on a mulet.

'Into the Highways and Hedges' is the sombre story of an itinerant preacher and his high-born wife. It is a novel built on free and fine lines and in a lofty and ample spirit. The unpremeditated, almost accidental marriage between these seemingly ill-matched persons, their strange home-coming, the development of their lives into a culmination which the reader will best enjoy in finding it for himself, form the first nucleus of interest; the second hangs on a trial for life, with striking pictures of Newgate as it was when the day of Elizabeth Fry was but dawning. There are lover-like sketches of the salt marshes of the English coast, and there are keen and deep portrayals of character which give the book distinction; there is strength with restraint, and naturalness with delicacy; the theology is old-fashioned but glowingly alive, and the modern spirit has its manifestation in the absence of "story-book" satisfactions and retributions. This is, all in all, a book of unusual scope and dignity.

Of course it was to be expected that followers of Stanley Weyman would arise and try to shine. The time is ripe and they are here. Mr. Case is one of them, and has written a romance full of mystery, fighting, and explosion, paying Mr. Weyman the further tribute of imitating that style of his that is compounded of archaism and sentiment. The lovable ruffian is here, and the fair lady of many perils and stanch heart, with the goodly band of attendant fighters, pirates, and disappointed lovers. They are wholesome company, and we will not quarrel with them on the trifling ground of having met them several times before in the past three years.

Mr. Dole's story, or "Summer Idyl," as he calls it, shows a distinct gain in cohesiveness over a previous novelette of his. For this relief, much thanks. But it is so slight, mild, childlike, and bland that one wonders how ever it came to stand alone. A few illustrations from photographs of New England coast scenery serve as a prop to this infant life, which is blameless, but hardly promising considered as a book. As a "booklet" it is far superior to much of the twaddle published under that name, and, in so classifying it, one recommends it to a large number of readers who will find herein the evidences of wide reading, intimate love of the sea, a good command of English, and a home-brewed humor.

Mrs. Wright's tales are also of the coast, and are full of the mysterious weirdness of the sea. But the scenery is lamentably profuse; it for ever breaks in on incident and talk, and is, as Schopenhauer said of life, a needlessly interrupting episode. The worm will turn, and landscape-writing is becoming a pest whose counteractive bacillus the nations pray for. The reader of these stories is impressed, first of all, however, with their unusual quality, and this not so much because they are more or less indeterminate, since that is the order of the day, but because of the originality shown in their construction, their situations, and their conversations. They have some tragic force, much emotional turbulence, and an odd juxtaposition of the realistic, the spectral, and the humorous. With the development of their best traits, strong work may well be looked for from their author in future. On the other hand, they now hover dangerously near the region where power is caricatured into affectation and originality into formlessness.

The genuineness of 'Doty Dontcare' falls comfortingly upon the nerves. Here is a real and interesting place, the Island of Santa Cruz; landscape drawing which illustrates and does not persecute; human beings with modes of speech and of living tropically picturesque, with uncomplicated passions like love, jealousy, and revenge; here is a situation full of interest, both historic and ethnologic, and finally, here is tragedy, culminating, indeed, in revolution, but, alas! never absent from the daily lives of those with whom even one drop in sixteen flows dark in the blood. This is a small book, and the story is somewhat stiff-jointed, but it commands attention at once by its obvious faithfulness of description of a lovely island garden and of a striking episode in West Indian history.

From Santa Cruz and its many races an easy transit is made by way of Mrs. Stuart's story to New Orleans and its mixed population, where, besides the usual creole element, we meet Italians and gypsies. 'Babette' is a story of a little creole girl written for young readers; the melodrama is well adapted to them, and the ever-absorbing theme of a stolen child is sure to awaken and hold their interest. In the working out of this good old-fashioned plot, we are perfectly willing to be met by the most amazing coincidences, recognitions, and resuscitations. Why not? Let the deaf mute learn to talk, the idiot to think, the child-stealer to repent. Such marvels are of the right and natural kind for childhood, and will help them into a love of larger romance.

The scene of 'Melting Snows' is laid in Germany, where one naturally expects to find Charlotte's bread-and-butter side by side with Werther's suicide, so that in this story the air of the kindergarten mingles easily with that of the tragic stage. One is prepared for the naïve and submits to it; and the tragedy has a cumulative force as it marches which is unexpectedly effective. The translation is good, yet in quoting Scripture it might be better to use the existing versions. When we read, "one deep calleth another because of the noise of the water-pipes," we are made to feel that the psalmist was thinking less of the sea than of a system of plumbing—an impression probably erroneous. The printing and paper are admirable and make reading a pleasure.

'When Love is Done' is clearly conceived but clumsily written. The author has had something definite and wise to say, but has said it in a way borrowed from bad models, in which the didactic poses for the serious and the awkward for the simple. The pages are

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marred by crudities of all sorts, and the style offends with involutions, sentences within sentences, and "loops, whorls, and arches" (as if Galton's finger print classifications had struck through the printer's ink). It is a tribute to the matter of the book that its manner does not utterly condemn it. Upon the subject of woman's work and her need to work in a systematic way, a door is opened, letting in a fresh and bracing air, which blows neither hot with modern excess of zeal nor cold with antiquated conservatism. True, the tone is one of bitterness against the conventions which make caste even in republican America, and against the men who live by these conventions instead of by their affections; but on the whole it is a tonic bitterness, and far better for young readers than the stories where the governess marries the earl. We commend this book to love-sick girls as a somewhat melancholy bit of reading, but one full of suggestion as to sources of recuperation and health. It will be a pleasing novelty to them not to be told that their only salvation is to teach the orphan boy to read, the orphan girl to sew. The fathers, too, who think that that is the only alternative to marriage are respectfully invited to pause and consider; though we confess to a private conviction that the fathers of to day are in a fairly docile attitude towards their ambitious daughters. That the higher education of women should lead them not necessarily to doing men's work, but women's work in a larger way, is so simple an idea that the novelists have hitherto let it alone.

A kindred problem, the sacred right of woman to be a milliner and a swell, is treated in Clara Louise Burnham's novel, 'The Wise Woman.' There is a great deal of village sputter and feud as to the existence of this right; then the milliner, when Lord Orville looms, is advised by the Wise Woman (one of Miss Burnham's idolized and apotheosized spinsters) to prevaricate about the millinery business and to chant her Long Island ancestry. Thus, when the moment is ripe for Lord Orville, his blushing fiancée is no longer a milliner (a thought Gilbertian, this), and is paraded before society by her friends, leagued in counsels of hypocrisy, as having merely played at the trade, hobby-wise. The wedding takes place, but the problem falls to the ground. This is merry, but is it ingenuous? We have always thought Miss Burnham's books belonged to the department of guileless sport rather than to literature; but if she begins to espouse causes and do it in morganatic fashion, we shall question if her books carry their own excuse for being, notwithstanding their cheery, chatty, fun-loving tone. Her Long Island proverb, "A child in the hand is worth two on the beach," is perhaps better than consistency.

'The Coming of Theodora' shows how intolerable the cardinal virtues may become in the hands of a person who does not know how to manage them. In fact, they sit so uneasily on the pages that the pages sit uneasily on the reader, who spends an uncomfortable hour over the book and wonders just why it was written. Its excellent English and the clever delineation of the happy-go-lucky Edward, the tender wife Marie, the fiercely excellent Theodora, hardly atone for the feeling imparted of an ever present pea-in-the-boot.

'The Red Star' is a little story of military life during the Napoleonic wars in Russia. The hero is an officer in the Emperor of Russia's horse guards; the heroine, a Polish girl of high rank. The story begins with a marriage of convenience between the two, till that moment strangers to each other. The ceremony is obnoxious to both, and also to the reader, upon the disclosure that the bridegroom has another and a hated wife. But how he earns the little Pole's forgiveness and the reader's, is told in a spirited recital which carries us from camp to field, into battle and siege, through hardships and narrow escapes. We see the Russians fly from Eylau; and we retreat with Murat from Königsberg. The desolateness of the Russian plains, the horrors of war, the honor of patriots, the fulness of moral cowardice and of physical bravery, and the daring of woman when she goes a-soldiering—all have an animated recording in the pages of this slender volume. It is the fifth in order of the Autonym Library, a series of which the clear printing rejoices the eye, and the convenient little shape at once puts itself insinuatingly into the hand.

'Name this Child' is the sickly story of a sickly boy who addled his brain by reading, at dead of night, the secretly discovered manuscript diary of a lunatic, and who in consequence did many foolish things, of which the most foolish was incessant analysis of himself. Narrowly escaping suicide, he settles down into a quiet married life, not "a cynic," we learn, but "the grand deprecator," with a "peculiar mentality," which leads a former schoolmate to observe, "I would not be those thinking people for ten thousand pounds." "I leave you, reader, with a smile," says the author in closing. The sweet sorrow of this parting is likely to be mutual if any eye save the patient reviewer's ever sees these final words. The madness of the theme is sanity itself compared with the madness of method. To do what the French critic accused Shakspere of doing—"trying all styles but the simple"—seems to have been the author's aim. The outcome is a wild-eyed, rumple-haired, dictionary-fed anarchy of language which creeps and oozes and crawls upon the spirits. It is quite true that under all is a grain of sense and a flash of power that extenuate but do not redeem. For ourselves we should freely forgive one who, reading the book, should exclaim with Marcus Aurelius, "I thank the gods that I did not make more proficiency in rhetoric, poetry, and the other studies."

A Cyclopædia of Works of Architecture in Italy, Greece, and the Levant. Edited by William P. P. Longfellow. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1895. 4to, pp. xxxii, 546.

This very handsome book contains twelve photogravures, one of them from a drawing of the interior of Sancta Sophia in Constantinople, and the others from direct photographs of important buildings and groups of buildings. It contains also 256 text illustrations, of which the greater number are half-tones, the others being plans or photographic copies of plates in other books. Credit is given to the books from which all these are taken. The preface calls attention to the photogravure of Sancta Sophia as having been prepared from a drawing, because the large photographs of that wonderful interior are made up of several pieces each, which cannot be rightly adjusted. It also names the carefully constructed picture on page 412 of St. Peter's from the chancel end, a view which other buildings prevent the student from obtaining in the presence of the church itself, although it is only right to say that Alinari publishes a very large picture which is almost equally complete, showing all but the base of the wall, and of course far more valuable as record. The other illustrations are good and well chosen, and in many instances at least are somewhat unfamiliar, either because the building itself is less well known or because the point of view chosen is novel. A glossary, purporting to deal only with those technical terms which are used in the text, and a bibliography very complete and good, so far as the author and title alone are concerned, precede the dictionary proper. This, which constitutes the entire body of the book, is composed of a list, with descriptions and comments, of the buildings thought most noteworthy in the towns, villages, and ancient sites of the countries indicated in the title. The list is alphabetical, first as to the geographical names, second as to buildings in each locality. The space allowed the different towns and other places is carefully measured according to the architectural importance and the number of the buildings considered worthy of treatment. Thus Rome has nearly one hundred pages, Ravenna ten, and Brindisi half a page.

The book, it will be seen, is built upon the lines of a guide-book. Those who are familiar with the German guide-books for Italy written by Dr. Gsell-Fels will have a fair conception of the way in which the buildings are brought before the reader. The amount of space given to a building in Gsell-Fels's book for its architecture alone without its contents is not so very different from the amount of space given to it in the Cyclopædia; the German work is often fuller in the account of classical buildings, and gives valuable maps and sketch-plans, but in mediæval and later work the advantage is with the Cyclopædia. Moreover, the latter is superior in the critical judgment and insight shown in its descriptions. The same treatment has been given comparatively to the architecture of lands where Gsell-Fels's guides do not run. That which the traveller or the would-be traveller will welcome the most kindly is perhaps the extending of first-rate guide-book service to the towns of the Dalmatian shore, of Syria, of the coast of Asia Minor, and of the Mediterranean isles. To many of these localities there is no fitting aid whatever, the guide-books being inadequate and extremely vague in their statements, and these and the books of classical geography often antiquated and greatly needing the mention of recent discoveries. The three pages devoted to Pergamon, for instance, are a real gain to every student as summing up the accessible knowledge of that most important site. The two pages and a half devoted to Assos give an excellent account of this interesting town, brought to the knowledge of men by the American explorers of about 1880. The little known ruins of Palmyra are treated as thoroughly as the subject admits, in the present state of our knowledge, in the two pages devoted to it, and the other sites of Roman ruins in Syria and its back country are taken up, each in its turn, and our very slight and imperfect knowledge of them is presented in a compact form. The centre of Asia Minor is as little known as Syria; what there is to give is well given here. The Balkan peninsula has received careful treatment, and the world of students will welcome this new and valuable source of information about its important ancient structures.

As for Italy, the latest researches of students of early pointed architecture have justice done them, as is seen under Casamari, Fossanuova, San Galgano, Ceccano, Valviscio-lo, and Santa Maria d'Arbona; the later Gothic architecture is treated very fairly under the names of the well-known towns where

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it has flourished; the earliest Renaissance is well handled, as under Florence and under the minor heads Capella Pazzi, Palazzo Strozzi, and the church of S. Lorenzo. In fact, the whole development of the architecture of modern Europe from the fall of the Roman Empire to the French Revolution is to be found here by those who know where to look. Of classical remains the treatment is peculiarly satisfying. What is most needed, and what is well ascertained, is presented in a perfectly comprehensible way. The articles on buildings in Pompeii seem to be quite unsurpassable as lucid and brief description. Herculaneum is, however, set forth in an article hard to understand, because it is not made clear how much the largest part of the explored remains is still deep under ground, accessible by wells and galleries only, and because the immense and celebrated villa in which were found so much important sculpture and the library of scrolls which are being slowly unrolled and deciphered, is only hinted at under the name of House of Aristides.

This brings us to the mention of what is perhaps the greatest disappointment that this book has for the student, namely, the absence of allusion to the little-known towns where something very interesting is to be found, and where more might be found if students were sent to them in greater number. It is a disappointment not to find any mention of Pomposa in the Venetian flat country, and Gavanana in the Apennines above Pistoja, Colle di Val d'Elsa in Western Tuscany, and Santa Maria di Falleri not far away to the southeast (although of this the Etruscan walls are mentioned), Piperno near Rome, and San Marino near Rimini, Pietra Santa and Monte Oliveto. But these would not rightly be classed as omissions; they are places left unnamed because there is not room to name all. More doubtful is the propriety of leaving unnamed many valuable buildings in towns where many other buildings are described. Perhaps on looking up, say, Florence, and on finding only a partial list of the buildings there which are dear to students, one has more reason to complain. Again, however, let it be urged that no cyclopædia was ever complete, or even consistent and uniform in its system of admission and rejection of topics. Fortunate and meritorious indeed the book which is so nearly consistent as this one.

The tone of criticism is uniformly just and moderate, without excess or partisanship of any sort. Mr. Charles A. Cummings and Prof. A. L. Frothingham, jr., are credited with most of the articles on Italian buildings since the fall of the Roman Empire. The late Thomas W. Ludlow prepared most of the articles on classical architecture, and those who have noted his extraordinary achievements in the way of compiling and marshalling information, as in the architectural definitions of the 'Century Dictionary,' will be prepared for the good work there is in the book before us. The question must be asked, however, what is the authority for calling the smaller temple at Baalbek "Temple of the Sun," and giving the larger one to Jupiter, thus reversing the usual attributions, while the photogravure at page 144 gives columns of the smaller temple as of the "Temple of Jupiter," according to the common practice?

Vergil in the Middle Ages. By Domenico Comparetti, Professor in the University of Florence. Translated by E. F. M. Benecke, with an introduction by Robinson Ellis, M.A., Corpus Professor of Latin in the University of Oxford. Macmillan & Co. 1895.

Good wine needs no bush, and Comparetti's 'Vergilio nel medio evo' is Chianti of the best. It was published twenty-three years ago at Leghorn, and at once gained for its author world-fame among students. Its character and contents are so well known that it really does not require either our notice or our praise. However, it is a pleasure to introduce the late Mr. Benecke's excellent translation to those of our readers who are not familiar with Italian, or have been unable to procure the rather scarce Leghorn edition. Prof. Robinson Ellis, Mr. Benecke's sponsor, has sought for years to have Comparetti done into English. His efforts are at last successful, and a much wider circle will now have access to one of the soundest and most engaging products of modern scholarship.

The work is divided into two parts, each of which deals with an important aspect of mediæval culture. The first section is occupied with the vicissitudes of Virgil's literary fame during the centuries which intervene between Propertius and John of Hauteseille, the author of the 'Dolopathos.' The second examines the fame of Virgil in popular legend, and in the medium of the new popular literature which was independent of classical tradition. Comparetti has steeped himself in classical and romance writers alike. Nothing escapes him which relates to Virgil. Nor is this all. He is the historian of whole phases of mediæval thought and feeling. His theme is so much wider than is implied by the title that one can read for pages together in the first part of his book without encountering any direct reference to Virgil at all. His aim is not only to present mediæval conceptions of Virgil, but to use these conceptions as a means of gauging the mediæval mind. He gives us both text and gloss; and even when he seems to go far afield —for instance, in the chapters on "Mediæval Latin Poetry in Classical Form" and "The Causes which led to the Renaissance"—he has always a sufficient reason, viz., the desire to adjust this particular study to whatever else is known of the character of literary pursuits and attainments during the Middle Ages. Later on he accumulates marvellous stories about Virgil till the limit of the grotesque is reached. But here the reason is the same. He says, in explaining his copious reference to myth and legend: "It must not be supposed that my object is merely to surprise and amuse by narrating curious facts and follies. What led me to interest myself in these studies, and to devote much time and labor to them, was the consideration of how noteworthy a part of the history of the human mind was reflected in the varied and various phenomena of which the subject is composed."

"Felix qui potuit rerum cognoscere caussas,
Atque metus omnes et inexorabile fatum
Subjecit pedibus, strepitumque Acherontis avari."

Here in the midst of one of the finest passages of all verse, the historical Virgil reveals himself. The poet of the 'Georgics' is no thaumaturge. He has, rather, the spirit of an experimental philosopher. But when once the fourth Eclogue had been wrested into a prophecy of the birth of Christ, Virgil easily became exalted by connection with "quella Roma onde Cristo è Romano." The 'Æneid,' with its constant glorification of Rome, did the rest. "Unde etiam in antiquis invenimus opus hoc appellatum esse non Æneidem, sed Gesta populi Romani." The Middle Ages could not be expected to make more difficulty about turning racial legend into authentic history than did the predecessors of Servius. These are the two main factors in the transformation. The prophet becomes a mage: the poet who had most nobly treated the destinies of the last kingdom of the vision of Daniel, became inseparably connected with it in the memory and imagination of the Middle Ages. Already, under the Flavians, Virgil towers above other Latin authors like Saul in Israel. Macrobius regards him as omniscient and infallible. Priscian cites him 1,200 times. At the moment when the Lombards entered Italy he is almost the sole exponent of classical culture. Comparetti, in summing up the first five chapters of his book, presents Virgil to us as he stood on the threshold of the era of incubation which produced the modern nationalities:

"As supreme centre of the literary tradition left by the Romans, as representative of classical learning, as interpreter of that Roman sentiment which survived the downfall of the Empire, the name of Virgil acquired in Europe a significance well-nigh equivalent to that civilization itself. Such was his charge to the nations of the future, committed to him by paganism as it died. Centuries before, Dante spoke of Virgil as 'virtù somma,' Justinian had said almost as much when, in the most perfect monument of the practical wisdom of the Romans which has survived, he puts Virgil by the side of the divine Greek epic poet who was to him 'the father of every virtue.'"

We cannot undertake to follow Comparetti through either part of his book—through the allegorical interpretations of Fulgentius, Bernard of Chartres, and John of Salisbury, or through the legends of Conrad von Querfurt and Gervase of Tilbury. The subject involves endless detail, and an adequate treatment would require pages. We wish, however, to touch upon one point in his remarks concerning the relations between Dante and Virgil, a theme of much more permanent interest than Neapolitan folk-lore, with its bronze flies, floating castles, and magic mirrors which revealed approaching danger. The main thesis which Comparetti seeks to establish is that the choice of Virgil as guide "is not, as is generally considered, a mere freak of the imagination determined by external causes, but has just as true a psychological reason as the choice of the other guide, Beatrice." He clears away the reasons which might have inclined Dante to choose Aristotle rather than Virgil. Dante saw Virgil much more truly than the average mediæval scholar. He did not regard him as omniscient. The Stagyrite is to him "'il maestro di color che sanno." But Dante, in so far as he was creative, was a poet and not a philosopher. Virgil was his favorite author, his master in style, the singer of the glories of Italy. Dante's idealized theory of the Holy Roman Empire rested on a Virgilian basis, for in the 'De Monarchia' he treats the 'Æneid' as authentic history. Furthermore, the 'Æneid' was to Dante an allegory which traced the soul's progress towards perfection. He derived his main idea and many details from it. But, most of all, Virgil had, by reason, attained to the one great truth which made him of all pagans appear to the Middle Ages "the purest and the nearest the Christ of whom he had been unconsciously the prophet." Comparetti does not, however, insist on one fact which seems to us particularly clear. Every virtue ascribed by Dante to Virgil but makes him the more a foil to her who leads the way through the heavens of the "Paradiso." Beside Virgil at his best, Beatrice "sticks fiery off." Her reprimand to Dante, when, in the Earthly Paradise, he laments the loss of Virgil, speaks

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volumes for the superiority of things spiritual over things rational and things ethical.

Prof. Robinson Ellis, in his introduction, can suggest only "a single point in Prof. Comparetti's sketch of the growth and history of the Virgilian legends upon which something might be urged on the other side." This relates to the influence of Naples in the formation and diffusion of the legends connected with Virgil's name. Soundness of judgment is, indeed, the crowning merit of Comparetti's book—soundness of judgment firmly based on thorough investigation. We have already spoken of the excellence of Mr. Benecke's translation. The conclusion of his labors was almost immediately followed by that accident in the Lötschenthal which cost him his life.

Bookbindings, Old and New: Notes of a Book-Lover, with an Account of the Grolier Club of New York. By Brander Matthews. Macmillan & Co. 1895. Pp. xiii, 342.

THIS volume, which is one more of the Exlibris Series, is a pleasant and very readable account of old and recent bookbinding. It is illustrated by more than a hundred photographic pictures, in the text or on the separate leaves inserted. The text is divided into five books, though they are not called "books"—five departments, entitled severally Bookbindings of the Past, Bookbindings of the Present, Commercial Bookbinding, Books in Paper Covers, and the Grolier Club of New York. Each book, as we have called it, or each division, is divided into chapters, each with its separate title; but, in spite of this appearance of system and the abundance of technical terms which are used (and, it is fair to say, explained), it is chiefly as agreeable talk about the coverings of books that this volume will be known and remembered. In the second department, called Bookbindings of the Present, one chapter is entitled "The Technic of the Craft," and under this heading a very good brief account of the processes of binding and decorating the modern book is given. This, however, has been done before, and more fully, and the chapter entitled the "Outlook for the Future" contains little beyond a series of jocose suggestions as to binding 'Two Years before the Mast' in fishskin, and 'Dr. Johnson' in bearskin, and similar devices, some of which seem to have that doubtful kind of humor which is known as twitting on facts. More important, we think, is the chapter entitled "The Merits of Machine Binding," and with this are to be reckoned the other chapters of the same division.

The distinction between all kinds of commercial bookbinding, on the one hand, and all kinds of "extra" bookbinding on the other, is clearly marked, and it is explained that commercial bookbinding is not binding, in a strict sense, but "casing"; that is to say, the covers are prepared in advance, and the stitched books are put into them. All our readers will have noticed the great number of quaint and novel fancies which American and other designers have worked up in stamps to be impressed upon cloth covers, and in the fancy of the cloth coverings themselves. Mr. Matthews's chapter on the search for novelty deals with many of the strange whims which have been embodied in some of these cloth covers. The chapter on "Stamped Leather" deals with the more elaborate class of edition binding—namely, that to which belong the pretty covers of Mr. Pyle's 'Robin Hood,' and the Harper edition of the 'Quiet Life' with the illustrations of Abbey and Parsons. The subject is carried on in the chapter upon "Paper Covers." Designs for the printed decoration of these, from the early days of *Harper's New Monthly Magazine*, when it *was* new, to the very recent and very vigorous design by Mr. Low for the *Bookbuyer*, are given, and among them are one of Mr. Walter Crane's when he was a less mannered designer than he has since become, and one of the inimitable drawings of Caldecott.

The reader would be glad of a little more critical discrimination. Bookbinding in leather is a decorative art of rather strict limitations, and there is much in the modern attempts to introduce novelty in design which cannot be thought successful in result, however original in conception. The designs for commercial book-covers seem to challenge criticism in their very character of a new departure, and it is the more important that they should be looked into with a critical eye-glass. The volume before us, in its simple jacket of dull green, a little glossy, and with plain gold letters, is non-committal.

Dixie; or, Southern Scenes and Sketches. By Julian Ralph. Harpers. 1895.

THERE is sufficient reason in their statistical value, apart from their readable style, for the consolidation into a volume of Mr. Ralph's papers contributed to his publishers' periodicals. Unfortunately for the statistics themselves, the very progress that they represent the new South as making will soon leave them behind, as of historical rather than of present interest. They are, however, in the tale of mills, of furnaces, of refineries, and especially of diversified agriculture, astonishing and captivating to all who have the true interests of the whole country at heart; and the very vivid descriptions of places and manners that belong only below the line, and that must be witnessed to be described, add an element of romance which is the more attractive in not being fictitious. The description is flecked with close observation and shrewd comment, as when, for instance, Mr. Ralph alleges that the cause of the creoles' dislike for Mr. Cable is not his portrayal of their life but of their English; and at the same time it betrays the tourist and not the resident in speaking of shell-stone for coquina (in St. Augustine) and depot (in Atlanta) for car-shed. It is hard to tell whether the writer's alleged ignorance of "toddy," which he professes to have first seen, and by implication first heard of, on the Arkansas in the Territory, is real. But if it was, the Grecian Porson's classical pun, when he found himself stranded at a wayside inn without whiskey or candle, and disappeared up stairs grumbling οὐδὲ τόδε, οὐδὲ τάλλα, would be lost upon him. But such ignorance is venial, if not commendable, in one who knows so much that is better and tells so much that is more fascinating. Mr. Ralph notes the immunity in late years of New Orleans from yellow fever, but fails to recognize, or at least to report, the importance of the Louisiana disinfection stations, the so-called quarantines, at the jetties and above, to which, with the greater cleanliness of the city, exemption is due. Whenever the opportunity offers, he combats the idea that the waste lands of the South are sterile or the worked lands exhausted, and he cites example after example of successful truck-farming on abandoned cotton-fields, and is especially enthusiastic as to the possibilities of white labor in Mississippi. It is a little odd that, having run the rake of his observation over so much of the South, he failed to draw anything out of Georgia below Atlanta, omitting beautiful Savannah and its great cotton mart and the rice fields, with no hint of their existence. Alabama is concentrated about Birmingham—what patience can one have with this appropriation of foreign names, in a flattery that usually has no significance, and which might have been discarded here for native nomenclature! (Birmingham does echo its original, but it might so easily have found a Cherokee designation of its own.) It is too much to expect for the whole South such a description as Mr. Ralph has given of Biloxi on the Gulf and of the Teche, but, as a part of the renaissance of which he is the herald, at least a few pages might have been spared for Tuskegee, the wonderful outgrowth of Hampton, where the negro is learning to use his brain and his hands together.

Lectures and Essays. By Henry Nettleship. Second Series. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1895. Pp. xliii, 266.

THIS volume is a sequel to one of the same name published in 1885. With the exception of a lecture on Madvig and a Memoir of Mr. Nettleship by his wife, all the articles in it are republications. Those upon Latin topics are already well known to the scholars whom they interest; the others are so inferior that one regrets their revival, for which, however, the author is responsible, since he thought them worth publishing in his life-time—thus once more exemplifying the purblind partiality of literary men for their weakest productions. The world of scholarship owes much to Nettleship. His work in the line of minute investigation, for which he was specially qualified both by nature and by his training, is always excellent. The articles in this volume which involve the examination of details must long remain papers of great value to the student of Latin. But when he leaves that range of subjects which gives scope for this kind of treatment he is fragmentary, inconclusive, in every way unsatisfactory. When he approaches some educational or ethical subject, it is with an extremely limited fund of ideas—not bad, perhaps, in their way, but altogether inadequate. Nevertheless he takes up the subject as broadly as possible, and raises expectations of a comprehensive treatment; but when he has shot off his small supply of ammunition, he leaves a disappointed reader, and a subject partly overdiscussed and partly neglected and ignored. Thus, in the essay on classical education, after promising a history of the subject, he quite leaves out the extremely interesting period of the Middle Ages, frankly confessing that he is not competent to speak of it. Why, then, write on a subject so imperfectly studied? There is no lack of books in which he might have found sufficient material to bridge such a deplorable gap.

There is also, in these *parerga*, a sad want of structural unity and definite purpose. The writer goes rambling through many pages of diffuse writing without bringing out any new thing which seems worthy of so many words. The impression left on the reader's mind is that of an article written to fill up an hour, or so many pages of a magazine. This, however, would not be a fair conclusion. Mr. Nettleship was quite incapable of any such purpose. Nor will any one tax him with indolence. His chief merit, indeed, was industry—laborious, painstaking industry. We repeat, he is admirable in the accumulation of details in his own special field. He is, in this respect, almost a German; and his admiration of the

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shallow German theories about specializing education, though perhaps heightened by his residence at a German University, must have come to him through something in his own nature. But when we have done justice to his accuracy and diligence in his specialty, which is the garnering of *minutiæ*, and have paid a passing tribute to his high motives and correct moral principles, though this is not precisely literary praise, we have said all that can be said for him as a man of letters. Some of his failings are not very noticeable when he is on his own ground. Yet, even there, he has serious faults both as a thinker and as a writer. He is prone to generalize on an insufficient number of particulars; he is prejudiced; and when he has approached a subject under a bias, he refuses to see anything that crosses his preconceptions, as, for example, in his judgment of Juvenal, in whom, from a literary point of view, he cannot see anything but a declaimer. This also is very German. He is, moreover, eccentric as only an Englishman can be. For example, he has discovered a correct poetic judgment and insight in Cicero, whose bad taste in poetry made him an object of derision to his contemporaries, while he declares that "it would be difficult to quote from Juvenal one really poetical line." This shows that Mr. Nettleship had just about as much taste in poetry as Cicero had; and also that, whatever came into his head, no matter how crude, he would say it without respect of persons.

It will be observed that these defects hang together. They all flow from a want of comprehensiveness, an inability to take in the whole of a large subject in one general view, without which no structural unity, no proportion or measure, and therefore no literary art is possible. And literary art Mr. Nettleship had none. He begins his essay on classical education with a definition of the term. His definition is inept and insufficient; but writers have a large latitude on this point in the interest of clearness. Only, Mr. Nettleship soon forgets all about his definition, and the same thing is referred to in subsequent pages as "literary" and as "liberal" education. When he is analyzing Cicero's style of criticism, he gives several pages of quotations from that author without any indication as to what they are expected to prove. When these quotations are at last read through, he claims this and that quality for Cicero as a critic; and the reader, if he would verify the claim, must go back and read them all over again. But a worse thing comes of this want of grasp, so natural, after all, in one whose intellectual vision was of the microscopic sort; and that worse thing is obscure and confused thinking. Clear thinking on a large subject demands the ability to keep in view a considerable number of things, in order to see their relations, and especially their relative importance. Of this quality Mr. Nettleship had as little as anybody can get along with. But confused thinking leads to obscure writing, and to the profusion of words which are merely *vox et præterea nihil*. There are many periods in these essays which are capable of any meaning that an ingenious reader may be able to read into them. A definite meaning of their own they have not.

That a man who possessed one field so well should yield to what is sometimes regarded as the clerical vice of attempting to teach all things, merely shows that this is a temptation to be guarded against by all who are accustomed to be listened to with respect when speaking *ex cathedra*. The penalty is a general loss of credit; but the fair minded reader who loves truth better than revenge will not claim the forfeit from Mr. Nettleship, because the man is essentially honest and earnest. He often recognizes the flimsiness of what he gives, and refers to his efforts as "fragmentary," "scattered," "inadequate" remarks. But what he fails to see is that no one compels him to publish anything in that condition. Still, nobody doubts his motives nor his earnestness. Of the latter, indeed, there is more than enough; his seriousness is something appalling. There lurks no smile between the covers of the book; no lambent gleam of wit such as even Cicero, to say nothing of the inimitable Plato, contrives to flash, now and then, on the driest subjects, as an incentive and reward to the attentive reader. One cannot without effort believe that the author of these papers can be the person of whom Mrs. Nettleship could say (p. xlii):

"His sense of humor was keen and delicate, and often, by some witty remark, he would give an unexpected turn to a conversation that threatened to become too serious. He told anecdotes well, having a retentive memory, and a knack of reproducing other people's gestures and intonations. . . . He would invent rhymes or pour out a torrent of puns and jokes, till every one was infected with his high spirits. He wrote a good many parodies and *jeux d'esprit* in prose and verse, some of which were privately printed, but the secret of their authorship never divulged."

Such is the testimony of his biographer, whose memoir is by far the most readable thing in the book—we mean, of course, as literature. After wading through so much ponderous solemnity, it is almost with a sense of injury and wrong that we learn that, after all, this extreme prosiness was not unavoidable.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science. Vol. VI. July-Dec., '95. Philadelphia: American Academy of Political and Social Science.
Bain, R. N. Charles XII and the Collapse of the Swedish Empire. Putnams. $1.50.
Ball, W. W. R. A Primer of the History of Mathematics. Macmillan. 65c.
Chisholm, G. C. Longmans' Gazetteer of the World. Longmans, Green & Co. $18.
Claretie, Jules. La Frontière. W. R. Jenkins. 25c.
Drachmann, Holger. Paul and Virginia of a Northern Zone. Chicago: Way & Williams. $1.25.
Eastwick, James. The New Centurion: A Tale of Automatic War. Longmans, Green & Co. 40c.
Foulke, E. E. Twilight Stories. Silver, Burdett & Co.
Gargoyle, Solomon. Five Sins of an Architect. Riverton, N. J.: Riverton Press.
Hawkes, Clarence. Pebbles and Shells: Verses. Northampton, Mass.: Picturesque Publishing Co.
Hidden, A. W. The Ottoman Dynasty. New York: N. W. Hidden. $2.
Inouye, Jukichi. The Japan-China War. Yokohama: Kelly & Walsh; New York: Scribners. $6.
Jacobs, Joseph. The Most Delectable History of Reynard the Fox. Macmillan. $2.
Kent, Prof. C. F. The Wise Men of Ancient Israel and their Proverbs. Silver, Burdett & Co. $1.25.
Kingsley, Charles. The Water-Babies. Macmillan. 75c.
Kukula, R., and Trübner, K. Minerva Jahrbuch der Gelehrten Welt. 1895-1896. Strassburg: Trübner; New York: Westermann. $2.
Lee, Sidney. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XLV. Pereira—Pockrich. Macmillan. $3.75.
Luce, Morton. A Handbook to the Works of Alfred Lord Tennyson. London: Bell; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Lukens, H. T. The Connection between Thought and Memory. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 90c.
Maclaren, Ian. Beside the Bonnie Brier Bush. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25c.
Metaphors, Similes and Other Characteristic Sayings of H. W. Beecher. New York: A. J. Graham & Co.
Powell, G. H. Excursions in Libraria: Being Retrospective Reviews and Biographical Notes. Scribners. $2.25.
Ramsay, Prof. W. M. St. Paul the Traveller and the Roman Citizen. London: Hodder & Stoughton; New York: Putnams. $3.
Stoddart, T. T. The Death-Wake; or, Lunacy. A Necromaunt. London: John Lane; Chicago: Way & Williams. $1.50.
Talleyrand's Letter to the Pope. New York: Peter Eckler. 25c.
Weizsäcker, Prof. Carl von. The Apostolic Age of the Christian Church. Vol. II. London: Williams & Norgate; New York: Putnams. $3.50.

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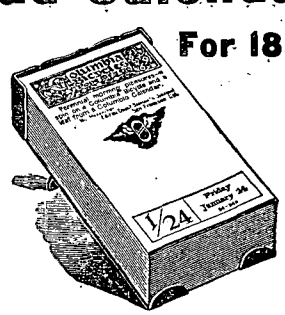

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